DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 031 227 JC 690 267

By-Johnson, B. Lamar, Ed.
The Junior College President; A Report of a Conference (Los Angeles, July 15-17, 1968).
California Univ., Los Angeles. Junior Coll. Leadership Program.
Report No-UCLA-JCLP-OR-13
Pub Date May 69
Note-127p.
Available from-UCLA Students' Store, 308 Westwood Plaza, Los Angeles, California 90024 ($2.00)
EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$6.45
Descriptors-*Administrator Responsibility, *Administrator Role, Conferences, *Junior Colleges, *Presidents

This report includes selected papers given at the twelfth national junior college conference, which was sponsored by the UCLA Junior College Leadership Program, the American Association of Junior Colleges, California Junior College Association, ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges, and the University of California Office of Relations with Schools. It was held July 1968 at Los Angeles. The titles of these majors papers were: "The Junior College President: Who and Where From"; "The Junior College President: Role and Responsibilities"; "Selecting and Securing a Junior College President"; "The Junior College President and the Faculty"; "The Junior College President, the Curriculum, and Instruction"; "The Faculty and the Junior College President"; "The Junior College President and the Student"; "The Junior College President and Student Personnel Services"; "The Student and the Junior College President"; "The Junior College President and Finances"; "The President, the Community, and Community Services"; "The President and Institutional Research"; "Mrs. President: Role and Responsibilities." (HH)

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ED031227

The Junior College President

A Report of a Conference Sponsored by
the UCLA Junior College Leadership Program
the American Association of Junior Colleges
the California Junior College Association
the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College
Information, and
the University of California Office of Relations with Schools

July 15-17, 1968

Edited by

B. Lamar Johnson

JC 690 267

Occasional Report No. 13

Junior College Leadership Program
Graduate School of Education
University of California, Los Angeles

May 1969

UNIVERSITY OF CALIF.
LOS ANGELES

JUL 23 1969

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PREFACE

With the rapid expansion of the junior college—including the establishment of new institutions—an unprecedented and unpredictable number of new presidents are required each year. In his paper in this report, Raymond Schultz, for example, notes that whereas in 1963 he had predicted for five years an annual need for eighty-two new presidents, the actual requirements during the past two years have been approximately twice as high as he had anticipated: 161 in 1966, and 165 in 1967.

The National Conference on the Junior College President was planned for both new and continuing presidents and their wives. It was also planned for those who work with presidents, and for students of the junior college, and, in particular, for students of junior college administration.

In addition to surveys and studies of the junior college president reported by Schultz and by the Morgans, the conference featured papers in which experienced junior college administrators considered varied facets of the role and responsibilities of the president: curriculum and instruction; student personnel services; finance; institutional research; and community service and relationships. Also explored—by administrators, by a faculty member (the President of the California Junior College Faculty Association), and by a student (the President of the California Student Government Association)—were the relationships of the president to the faculty and to students.

Featured at the conference was a consideration of the role and responsibilities of presidents' wives. In a news article on the conference, the *Los Angeles Times* reported:

> The program for the presidents specifically included their wives, and at one session the men were relegated to the back of the room while their spouses participated in a program called "Mrs. President: Role and Responsibilities."
>
> Mrs. Don A. Morgan . . . opened the program with a paper on the role of the two-year college president's wife. . . .
>
> A panel of five wives continued the discussion and answered questions from the audience, one of whose members noted that "after having to be silent all year, it's fun to have a chance to talk."[1]

The National Conference on the Junior College President is the twelfth summer junior college conference to be held at UCLA. Registered attendance at the conference numbered more than 250, representing twenty-nine states, Canada, and Mexico. This report consists of the major papers presented at the conference.

The editor expresses his thanks to those who presented papers at the conference, and to William A. Harper, director of public relations of the American Association of Junior Colleges, for editorial services.

B. LAMAR JOHNSON

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[1] Ursula Vils, "College Presidents' Wives Keep Busy," *Los Angeles Times*, July 23, 1968.

RAYMOND E. SCHULTZ

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT: WHO AND WHERE FROM

This paper is based on the findings of a study which I initially conducted of newly appointed junior college presidents in 1963, and have updated annually since then. That initial study, commissioned by the American Association of Junior Colleges, was made to obtain information on which to predict the future needs for junior college administrators. It included all major administrative positions, not just presidents. Summary findings of that study and my predictions appear in a monograph entitled *Administrators for America's Junior Colleges: Predictions of Need 1965–1980.*[1]

The data which I have collected annually since 1963 have been limited to chief administrators. In addition to providing a check for the earlier predictions, those data have served as a continuous source of information on newly appointed junior college presidents. They have shown that I am a lousy prognosticator! To illustrate, I predicted a need for eighty-two new junior college presidents annually during the five years immediately following the predictions. By contrast, for the years 1966 and 1967 the actual numbers were 161 and 165, respectively.

In my defense, the discrepancy resulted in substantial measure from underestimating one factor—the number of new institutions established. Based on the best information available in 1964, it was calculated that thirty new institutions would begin operation annually through 1970. That is far short of the fifty-six and seventy-two that opened in 1966 and 1967, respectively. The evidence available in 1964 just did not warrant a forecast of junior college development of the magnitude that has occurred.

Several reports, in addition to the one previously identified, have been based on the information collected in conjunction with the 1963 predictive study and subsequent follow-up studies. Two of these were dissertations by my doctoral students, Roberts[2] and Johnson.[3] Roueche, in the June, 1968, issue of the *Junior College Research Review,* summarized the results of those and other studies of the junior college president.[4] This paper updates the report I made in an article entitled "Changing Profile of the Junior College President" that appeared in the October, 1965, issue of the *Junior College Journal.*[5] That article reported on a comparison of the backgrounds of presidents appointed in 1963 and 1964 with those appointed prior to 1963. This paper updates that information through 1967.

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[1] Raymond E. Schultz, *Administrators for America's Junior Colleges: Predictions of Need 1965–1980* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1965).

[2] Dayton Y. Roberts, "Chief Administrators of Public Junior Colleges: A Prediction of the Number Needed and Sources of Supply 1963–1973" (dissertation, Florida State University, 1964).

[3] Archie B. Johnson, "Private Junior College Administrators: An Analysis of Their Backgrounds and a Twelve-Year Prediction of Future Need" (dissertation, Florida State University, 1965).

[4] John E. Roueche, "The Junior College President," *Junior College Research Review,* II, No. 10.

[5] Raymond E. Schultz, "Changing Profile of the Junior College President," *Junior College Journal,* XXXVI (Oct. 1965), 8–13.

The decision as to what constitutes a junior college president is not as simple as might be assumed on first thought. This and other investigations which I have directed and conducted were limited to administrators of institutions listed in the *Junior College Directory*. Excluded from that listing were chief administrators of division and branch campuses of senior colleges, vocational and technical institutes, proprietary institutions, and seminaries. Institutions with enrollments of fifty students or less were omitted except that presidents of newly established institutions were included, regardless of enrollments. University extension centers were omitted except for the community colleges operated by the University of Kentucky because of their local orientation and the autonomy given the directors. Campus heads of multi-campus junior college systems were included where listed in the *Junior College Directory*.

TABLE I
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF NEWLY APPOINTED JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS INCLUDED IN STUDY

Returns by Period of Appointment	Type of Junior College				
	Public	Independent	Catholic	Protestant	All Institutions
Appointed 1952–1962					
Number contacted	295	51	30	71	447
Number returned	265	36	18	55	374
Percent returned	89.8	70.6	60.0	77.5	83.7
Appointed 1963 and 1964					
Number contacted	145	17	18	17	197
Number returned	140	15	17	16	188
Percent returned	96.6	88.2	94.4	94.1	95.4
Appointed 1965 and 1966					
Number contacted	255	15	39	19	328
Number returned	238	12	30	14	294
Percent returned	93.3	80.0	76.9	73.7	89.6
Appointed 1967					
Number contacted	139	9	9	9	166
Number returned	130	6	9	9	154
Percent returned	93.5	66.7	100.0	100.0	93.3
Entire period 1952–1967					
Number contacted	835	92	96	116	1138
Number returned	773	69	74	94	1010
Percent returned	92.6	75.0	77.1	81.0	88.8

Now I will report on the junior college presidents appointed over the past fifteen years. The report is organized into five sections: (1) the reason positions became available; (2) the sources of junior college presidents; (3) the backgrounds of newly appointed presidents; (4) presidents of newly established institutions; and (5) comparisons of newly appointed presidents by state.

An analysis of responses from the presidents surveyed by time period and type of institution is presented in Table I. The overall return was 88.8 percent, and for public institutions it was 92.6 percent. An overwhelming proportion of the presidents (773 of the total of 1,010) represented in the study headed public junior colleges. This is due both to their greater number and the establishment of new institutions. Because of the small number of private junior college presidents represented, they were combined into a single group for most of the analyses.

TABLE II
REASONS PRESIDENCIES BECAME AVAILABLE
1952–1967

Reason by Type of Institution		Percent by Period of Appointment			
		1952–1962	1963 and 1964	1965 and 1966	1967
	Public: Private:	(N = 265) (N = 109)	(N = 140) (N = 48)	(N = 238) (N = 56)	(N = 130) (N = 24)
Predecessor resigned to accept another position					
Public		29.8	34.3	18.1	23.1
Private		22.9	37.5	26.8	33.3
All institutions		27.8	35.1	19.7	24.7
Predecessor released or resigned before accepting another position					
Public		10.6	5.7	6.7	6.9
Private		22.9	16.7	17.9	20.8
All institutions		14.2	8.5	8.8	9.1
Predecessor deceased or retired due to age or poor health					
Public		22.3	19.3	5.0	12.3
Private		33.1	25.0	25.0	20.8
All institutions		25.4	20.7	8.8	13.6
First person to hold position; i.e., new institution					
Public		32.8	39.3	58.8	56.2
Private		17.4	12.5	25.0	25.0
All institutions		28.3	32.4	52.4	51.3
Reason not given					
All institutions		4.3	3.2	11.9	1.3

REASONS POSITIONS BECAME AVAILABLE

The reasons that positions became available differed substantially for public and private institutions (Table II). A much higher proportion (and number) of those appointed to public junior college presidencies headed newly established institutions. Further, and a point noted in the introduction, with the passage of time this became an increasingly major factor in public institutions. It accounted for 32.8 percent of such vacancies in the period 1952–62 and increased to 58.8 percent for the years 1965–66.

Vacancies created by turnover resulting from resignations to accept other positions was of about the same magnitude in public and private junior colleges. This accounted for roughly one-third of all vacancies. However, an appreciably higher ratio of the vacancies in private than in public institutions were created by the predecessor being released or having resigned before accepting another position. This implies a higher rate of dismissal in private institutions. Overall, this accounted for about one vacancy of every ten.

TABLE III
SOURCES OF JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS
1952–1967

Source by Type of Institution		Percent by Period of Appointment			
		1952–1962	1963 and 1964	1965 and 1966	1967
	Public: Private:	(*N* = 265) (*N* = 109)	(*N* = 140) (*N* = 48)	(*N* = 238) (*N* = 56)	(*N* = 130) (*N* = 24)
Senior college–university					
Public		17.4	17.8	18.5	11.7
Private		24.8	25.0	21.4	29.2
All institutions		19.5	19.7	19.0	14.6
Junior college					
Public		51.3	56.4	48.4	65.6
Private		30.3	47.9	37.5	45.8
All institutions		45.2	54.3	46.3	62.5
Elementary–secondary					
Public		25.3	17.1	24.4	11.7
Private		11.9	10.4	23.2	12.5
All institutions		21.4	15.4	24.1	11.8
Other					
Public		6.0	8.7	8.8	11.0
Private		33.0	16.7	19.6	12.5
All institutions		13.9	10.6	10.8	11.2

The final factor of consequence in creating the vacancies filled by these presidents was retirement and failing health. It accounted for between one-fourth and one-fifth of the openings—slightly higher for private than for public institutions.

SOURCES OF JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Junior colleges constituted the major source from which presidents were recruited (Table III). Over the period studied, approximately one-half came from that source. One might assume that with the passing of time a higher proportion of presidents would be recruited from the junior college ranks but there was no clear trend in that direction. Proportionately fewer private than public junior college presidents came from that source

Nearly equal numbers of junior college presidents came from senior college-university and from elementary-secondary school positions. This accounted, in each case, for approximately one-fifth of the total number. The remainder, about 11 percent, were recruited from a variety of other sources. In the case of denominational institutions this was most often the ministry, whereas for public and independent institutions the sources were governmental agencies, foundations, and the like.

Table IV
LAST PREVIOUS POSITION HELD BY JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS APPOINTED 1952–1967

Previous Position Held by Type of Institution	Percent by Period of Appointment			
	1952–1962	1963 and 1964	1965 and 1966	1967
Public: Private:	($N = 265$) ($N = 109$)	($N = 140$) ($N = 48$)	($N = 238$) ($N = 56$)	($N = 130$) ($N = 24$)
President				
Public	10.9	14.3	14.3	13.8
Private	4.6	12.5	0.0	4.2
All institutions	9.1	13.8	11.6	12.4
Other college administrator				
Public	48.7	55.7	41.6	56.9
Private	45.9	41.7	42.9	54.2
All institutions	47.9	52.1	41.8	56.5
Elementary or secondary administrator				
Public	26.0	19.3	32.4	11.6
Private	10.1	12.5	25.0	8.3
All institutions	21.4	17.5	31.0	11.0
Religious worker				
Public	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Private	22.0	8.3	16.1	8.3
All institutions	6.4	2.1	3.8	1.3
Other (including faculty member)				
Public	14.4	10.7	11.8	17.7
Private	17.4	25.0	16.1	25.0
All institutions	15.2	14.4	12.6	18.8

BACKGROUNDS OF NEWLY APPOINTED PRESIDENTS

Last Previous Position

Over the period covered by this study over seven of every eight newly appointed presidents came from outside the ranks of junior college presidents (Table IV). In other words, nearly nine hundred of the 1,010 presidents represented in the study were new in that role. As a result, this investigation reflects primarily the backgrounds of inexperienced presidents. While proportionately there was more migration from one presidency to another among public than among private junior colleges, there was no consistency from year to year.

Not surprisingly, the position from which these presidents most frequently came was some other type of college administrative assignment. While not shown in

Table IV, this was most frequently a junior college deanship, though a fair representation came from the administrative ranks of senior colleges and universities.

A substantial proportion also came directly from the ranks of elementary and secondary school administration—in most cases from school superintendencies. For the year 1967, however, there was a sharp drop in this source over the preceding years.

When considered together, the above categories show that approximately 80 percent of the presidents appointed during the period 1952–1967 were recruited from some other administrative position. The remainder came from a variety of positions with only one, "Religious Worker," being of sufficient magnitude to warrant mention. While not reflected in Table IV, the majority of new presidents with such backgrounds were in Protestant denominational junior colleges. The concept that a good minister makes a good president of a church-related college appears to be still widely held by those who select presidents for such institutions.

TABLE V

EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION OF PRESIDENTS APPOINTED 1952–1967 BASED ON HIGHEST EARNED DEGREE

Highest Earned Degree by Period of Appointment	Percent by Type of Junior College*				
	Public	Independent	Catholic	Protestant	All Institutions
Doctorate					
1952–1962†	49.1	38.9	16.7	18.2	42.1
1963 and 1964	57.8	66.7	23.5	31.2	53.2
1965 and 1966	64.7	33.3	26.7	50.0	58.8
1967	69.2	33.3	55.5	44.5	65.6
Master's					
1952–1962†	48.3	50.0	83.3	45.5	49.6
1963 and 1964	37.9	26.6	76.5	37.5	40.4
1965 and 1966	33.4	58.3	63.3	21.4	36.0
1967	28.5	50.0	44.5	55.5	31.8
No graduate degree					
1952–1962†	2.6	11.1	0.0	36.3	8.3
1963 and 1964	4.3	6.7	0.0	31.2	6.4
1965 and 1966	2.9	1.7	10.0	28.6	5.4
1967	2.3	16.7	0.0	0.0	2.6

* These percentages are based on *N*'s given in Table I.

† Includes presidents appointed during that period who were still in office as of 1963 and possessed this degree at that time.

Educational Preparation

Highest earned degree. The formal education possessed by newly appointed junior college presidents is increasing significantly (Table V). This is true especially with respect to public institutions. The percentage of such presidents who possessed the doctoral degree increased from 49.1 percent for the period 1952–1962 to 69.2 percent in 1967. Proportionately, only about half as many presidents appointed to private junior college presidencies possessed earned doctorates as was the case for public institutions.

Newly appointed presidents of Protestant denominational junior colleges were the only group where a substantial number lacked any type of earned graduate degree. In the case of those institutions, the proportion was substantial—nearly 30 percent overall—though none of those in the 1967 study were in that category. This probably relates to a point previously noted—that ministers, at least until very recently, have continued to be selected as presidents of such junior colleges in substantial numbers.

Table VI

DOCTORATE SPECIALIZATION OF NEWLY APPOINTED JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS*

Doctorate Specialization	Percent by Period of Appointment		
	1963 and 1964 (*N* = 100)	1965 and 1966 (*N* = 177)	1967 (*N* = 101)
Education (excluding higher education)	55.0	58.1	44.6
Higher Education (administration including junior college)	15.0	19.2	29.7
Humanities–Social Sciences	22.0	15.8	14.8
Science–Mathematics (including engineering)	4.0	1.1	5.9
Other	4.0	5.7	5.0

* Only holders of earned doctorates are included in this analysis.

Area of doctoral specialization. An analysis was made of presidents appointed in 1963 and later who possessed earned doctorates to ascertain the areas of specialization represented by those degrees. The results were combined into five broad categories; namely, (1) education (excluding higher education), (2) higher education (including junior college administration), (3) humanities—social sciences, (4) science—mathematics (including engineering), and (5) other.

Over the period covered by this analysis, approximately three-fourths of all doctoral degree holders appointed to junior college presidencies specialized (at the doctoral level) in professional education—including higher education (Table VI). The most frequent area of specialization was "education" (excluding higher education).

Over the period of the analysis, a marked change occurred, however, in the proportion who specialized at the doctoral level in higher education. The increase from 15.0 percent in 1963–64 to 29.7 percent in 1967 no doubt reflects the growing supply of administrators with doctoral specialization in junior college administration. It may also indicate a growing awareness by boards of trustees of the special expertise possessed by such applicants for presidencies.

The rest—approximately 25 percent—were distributed among the remaining categories with the humanities-social sciences areas being by far the most frequent.

TABLE VII

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF NEW JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS AT TIME OF APPOINTMENT*

Period of Appointment	Age Distribution at Time of Appointment		
	Q_1	Median	Q_3
1955–56 (N = 42)	40	45	51
1959–60 (N = 83)	39	43	49
1963–64 (N = 163)	41	47	52
1966–67 (N = 240)	41	46	53

* Only presidents new in that role are represented in this analysis.

That category represented the doctoral specialization of nearly 20 percent whereas the science-mathematics area constituted the specializations of less than 5 percent of the group.

Age Distribution

An analysis was made of the age of presidents who were new in that role at the time of appointment. This was done by establishing quartile distribution points for selected years (Table VII).

There was almost no change in the age distribution over the fourteen-year period covered by the analysis. Of those appointed in 1966 and 1967, one-fourth were less than 42 years of age; one-fourth were between ages 42 and 46; one-fourth between ages 47 and 53; and one-fourth were over 53 years of age.

PRESIDENTS OF NEWLY ESTABLISHED INSTITUTIONS

Mention has been made of the impact which the rapid establishment of new public junior colleges is having on the need for administrators. An analysis was made of the presidents appointed to head those institutions during the period 1963–67 in terms of whether they were experienced or inexperienced in that role (Table VIII).

TABLE VIII

APPOINTMENTS TO NEW AND ESTABLISHED PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES BY EXPERIENCED AND INEXPERIENCED PRESIDENTS

Year Appointed	Inexperienced Presidents		Experienced Presidents		Totals
	New Institution	Established Institution	New Institution	Established Institution	
	(N)	(N)	(N)	(N)	(N)
1963	15	29	7	4	55
1964	29	47	4	5	85
1965	67	42	10	4	123
1966	46	50	10	10	115
1967	61	51	13	5	130
Total	218	218	44	28	508

Proportionately, a somewhat higher ratio of experienced than inexperienced presidents—approximately six to five—were named to head newly established public junior colleges. In terms of sheer number, however, a great many more of those institutions were headed by inexperienced presidents—218 to 44. Further, the fact that half of *all* those inexperienced presidents were appointed to newly established institutions is of major significance. Not only were these individuals confronted with proving themselves as presidents, they have had responsibility for putting into operation and setting the course of new institutions. Either one of these responsibilities alone is a major undertaking. To say that, taken together, they are a double challenge is an understatement.

TABLE IX

SOURCE AND EDUCATIONAL PREPARATION OF NEWLY APPOINTED PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS FOR SELECTED STATES 1963–1967*

State	Source and Educational Attainment in Percent				
	Source				Possess Doctorate
	Sr. College-University	Junior College	Elementary-Secondary	Other	
Alabama....... (*N* = 12)	8.3	16.7	50.0	25.0	41.7
California...... (*N* = 72)	4.2	83.3	11.1	1.4	72.2
Florida........ (*N* = 15)	20.0	60.0	0.0	20.0	100.0
Illinois......... (*N* = 32)	12.5	59.4	25.0	3.1	43.8
Iowa........... (*N* = 21)	4.8	23.8	52.3	19.1	28.6
Kansas......... (*N* = 21)	9.5	42.8	47.6	0.0	33.3
Michigan....... (*N* = 26)	11.5	77.0	7.7	3.8	76.9
Minnesota...... (*N* = 19)	26.3	57.9	10.5	5.3	42.1
Missouri....... (*N* = 18)	27.7	50.0	16.7	5.6	66.7
New York...... (*N* = 29)	34.5	44.9	3.4	17.2	79.3
North Carolina (*N* = 20)	20.0	35.0	15.0	30.0	85.0
Pennsylvania... (*N* = 17)	23.5	41.1	17.7	17.7	88.2
Texas.......... (*N* = 21)	9.5	76.2	4.8	9.5	57.1
Washington.... (*N* = 18)	16.7	33.3	44.4	5.6	94.4
Totals..... (*N* = 341)	14.7	56.6	19.3	9.4	65.4

* States in which twelve or more public junior college presidents were appointed during this period.

COMPARISONS BY STATE

An analysis was made to determine if differences existed among states in the type of backgrounds represented by those selected as presidents of public junior colleges. Only states in which at least twelve presidents were appointed during the period 1963–1967 were included. Comparisons were made among these states in terms of the sources from which newly appointed presidents came and the percentage of them who possessed earned doctoral degrees. Variations were great among the fourteen states included in the analysis (Table IX).

For some states (Alabama, Iowa, Kansas, and Washington) the chief sources of new presidents were elementary and secondary schools. Other states (New York, Missouri, and Minnesota) drew substantially from senior colleges and universities. Still other states (California, Michigan, and Texas) recruited their presidents primarily from within the junior college ranks. It warrants noting that states which recruited presidents most heavily from elementary and secondary schools, with one possible exception, have new or recently expanded junior college systems that grew out of a secondary school orientation. By contrast, states where presidents were recruited from the junior college ranks are systems where the public junior college has had a long period of identity in its own right.

Great variation was found among states in the proportion of newly appointed presidents who possessed doctoral degrees. The range was from less than 30 to 100 percent. States where the percentage exceeded 75 were, in descending order, Florida (100), Washington (94.4), Pennsylvania (88.2), North Carolina (85.0), New York (79.3), and Michigan (76.9). By contrast, the percentage was less than 50 for a number of states. In ascending order, these states were Iowa (28.6), Kansas (33.3), Alabama (41.7), Minnesota (42.1), and Illinois (43.8). As might be expected, states with the lowest proportion of doctorate holders also recruited a high proportion of presidents from elementary and secondary schools. The converse was not true, however. States where a high percentage of newly appointed presidents possessed doctorates showed no pattern regarding the sources from which they came.

SUMMARY

To what extent are these growing numbers of junior college presidencies (the same applies to the much larger number of second- and third-echelon administrative positions) being filled by individuals qualified to give the type of leadership called for by the position? This study was not designed to answer that question directly but it does provide some good clues.

The following factors, that probably can be considered clearly positive, were revealed:

1) As a group these newly appointed presidents were mature in years.
2) Most of them had previous administrative experience.
3) The ratio who possess doctorates was increasing substantially among public institutions.
4) The proportion of presidents appointed to public institutions in 1967 who had previous junior college experience showed a marked increase over preceding years.

Balanced against these factors were a number of others which, if not negative, are certainly not favorable. Especially is this true by virtue of the fact that over the past three years nearly 60 percent of those accepting positions in public junior colleges assumed presidencies of newly established institutions. These factors were:

1) Nearly 45 percent of all newly appointed presidents *did not* possess doctoral degrees, and for private institutions the percentage was nearly 70 percent.
2) Of those with doctorates, few had specialized preparation in junior college administration until very recently. (This was due, in part at least, to the fact that such preparation was not available.)

3) A substantial proportion of junior college presidents have been recruited from elementary and secondary school positions.

4) Nearly half of the presidents appointed over the period covered by the investigation had had neither formal study of the junior college nor experience as a teacher or administrator in such an institution.

The points just summarized pose some fundamental concerns. A pessimist might contend that they place the junior college movement in jeopardy. Certainly they underscore the need for graduate programs in junior college administration and in-service assistance. In this respect, they point up the important purpose served over the past seven years by the Junior College Leadership Program in ten universities around the United States with the assistance of grants from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. Other indications of an awareness of this need include the United States Office of Education funding of projects such as the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information at UCLA, the recent U.S.O.E. Title III Grant to the American Association of Junior Colleges to aid developing colleges, and the vigorous leadership by the AAJC staff which is being facilitated increasingly by foundation grants.

DON MORGAN

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT: ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES

The presidency is a type of destination difficult to describe to someone who has not been there. The dearth of meaningful descriptions of the position may stem from the fact that presidents are too busy to analyze what they do. Nonetheless, there is a growing and interesting literature describing who becomes president.

The increasing and proper concern with the backgrounds of presidents yields a literature concerned chiefly with the "way there." These descriptions should *not* be confused with the conduct of the office nor with "why" these people finally became presidents. The studies of backgrounds and characteristics are descriptive, not prescriptive, and there is some danger in even the suggestion that there is an average or particularly beneficial path to the presidency which aspirants to the position might be well advised to follow. In response to a question in a national survey that is detailed later in this paper, President Sahlin, Quinnipiac College, New Haven, Connecticut, wrote:

> There is no such thing as the best training in preparation for a presidency. It's like "accounting for women"! One of the finest college presidents comes from a position as director of a historical foundation and its museum, but how many have that kind of background?

Each institution has its own integrity as well as its own problems. The establishment of dominant types of people by age and background could lead to a uniformity of thought and action totally inadequate to the broad development of the American two-year college. Another consideration is the nearly bewildering pace of social change in recent years. This change can be attributed in great part to enormous population pressures and technological production processes which are mutually complicating. Moreover, social change is never complete in any large modern society; instead, *pockets of people are left behind and isolated* by behavioral patterns inadequate to the altered situation. And though B. Lamar Johnson has documented the heartening ability of the two-year college to innovate and experiment, and Erwin Harlacher has described some significant community service programs, *there remain the enormous needs of the bypassed people,* which must be faced squarely.

Studies of the presidency must be geared increasingly toward the adequacy of performance of both the individual and the institution served. As society shifts so will the nature of the presidency. For those looking for stability in a presidency, it is chilling but accurate news that social change will accelerate yet again, producing new pockets of isolated and inadequately skilled people even though the needs of those already bypassed have not been properly met. We have described ourselves as "the people's college geared to serve all who can profit." These continued social changes will require further changes in the two-year colleges and in the characteristics and behavior of the presidents of those colleges. Only then will the particularly energetic and viable two-year college remain pertinent.

IMPORTANCE OF THE PRESIDENCY

The Effect of Two-Year College Growth and Maturation

It would appear that the role and responsibilities of the American two-year college president are shifting, as indeed they must. A Florida State Department of Education publication included the statement that the president is "the most important single individual in the community junior college."[1] However, as the numbers of two-year colleges increase, as existing colleges mature, and as the major societal changes of increasing technology and increasing urbanization of population continue, the nature of the two-year college presidency will shift toward a more truly managerial status.

Still seen too frequently is the "overwhelmed-by-himself type" of president, who is astonished that he ever arrived at such a pinnacle, can see no other pinnacles worthy of his attention, and spends nearly all his time protecting himself and his position and enlarging his ego. Also prevalent are the "seat-of-the-pants" operator who arrived by accident with no real administrative skills and must wrestle with each problem *after* it arises, doing so in a personal and impulsive fashion, and the romantic "follow-me-boys type" who charges emotionally up and out of the trenches, with gains and mortalities a direct result of whatever he finds immediately ahead in areas that he has not scouted. A current type, the "carpetbagger," is the president with considerable executive skill and great ambition who moves swiftly in and out of situations of opportunity (not totally unrelated to the size of the president's salary and of the operation) where it is usually possible to organize a new college quickly and then move on to bigger things. This behavior results in frequent management shifts and is not conducive to stable operations.

The old adage "if the president wants something to happen, it will," is going to become less and less personalized as the distance from the presidency to the classroom widens. Something *will* happen at any college only if a number of influences which eventually center on the presidency coalesce. *Fewer and fewer presidents will be allowed to emerge from the broom closet after a few hours solo cogitation, clutching a whole new curriculum or next year's budget.*

Importance of the Presidency Is an Outgrowth of Success

The two-year college has enjoyed an amazing success in the post World War II period. The 1968 *Directory* of the American Association of Junior Colleges analyzed the growth of two-year colleges from 1961–1967. Growth was measured on two counts—the number of institutions (which increased from 678 to 912) and the number of students (which increased from about 750,000 to nearly 1,700,000). A projection was made by the *Directory* that by 1972 space and colleges would be needed to serve nearly 3,000,000 students.

As the numbers of colleges and students increase, there will be a need for many new or replacement presidents. Roberts[2] in 1964 suggested that for the decade of 1963–73 some 584 new chief administrators would be needed. Schultz[3] in 1965 expanded the time considered to fifteen years and suggested that for the years 1965–1980 some 1,403 new or replacement presidents would be needed. *However many presidents are needed, one can be certain that a nearly equal number of bodies will be found.* The principal concern, therefore, must be with the quality and not the quantity of the presidents. This concern will require an examination of the office.

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[1] *Suggestions for Selecting a President for a Community Junior College in Florida* (Tallahassee: Florida State Department of Education, Division of Junior Colleges, 1966), p. 1.

It is *not* at all certain that the president has contributed to the importance of the two-year college. It is far more likely that the importance of the two-year college, which has risen to meet society's aspirations, has contributed to the importance of the president. The continuing importance and sophistication of the two-year college will guarantee that the office of the president will increase in importance.

A STUDY OF THE PRESIDENCY

The report presented here is based on surveys I conducted, which were begun nearly three years ago. They consist of simple inquiries into the experiences, attitudes and opinions of presidents and other key persons and officials regarding the nature and conduct of the office of the presidency.

When first elected president, I turned to the literature for accounts of experiences of two-year-college presidents but found very little. My subsequent studies were motivated simply by a desire to find out more about this most curious and interesting job.

The first questionnaire dealt essentially with what a new president ought or ought not to do when he first arrives on the job. Thomas Carr, since retired from the presidency of Bay Path College, Massachusetts, refused to answer the questionnaire but wrote:

> If I were to offer, in answer to your question, a piece of advice, it would be in one word—RESIGN—and inasmuch as you admit you are newly elected and have not as yet assumed this position, it is not too late to gracefully correct a lifetime of mistakes. You could become a pool shark, a golf pro, and if you are not athletically inclined you could work for the government. You will find these vocations will give you relative peace of mind and a long life. The course you have now embarked upon will not.

On five different occasions this project subsequently involved, or at least attempted to, all the presidents of two-year colleges in the country. It also involved a select group of twelve presidents, nominated most frequently by their colleagues and peers as being "successful" presidents. Nine of the twelve have been interviewed. Additional opinions about the presidency were gathered from the president's wife, the second man in the college administrative scheme, the president's secretary, and the head of the most representative faculty association at each campus.

What Is a President?

The nearly 450 presidents who eventually completed the first questionnaire did not disagree with the following definition of the president:

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[2] *The College President—A Bibliography* (Los Angeles: ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, University of California, 1968), p. 12.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 12.

> A president is that official responsible for the operation of the college. He may be called a dean or director and may or may not report to a policy board through another administrative unit. The key is that he directs the college operation.

This definition was expanded in the report, based on responses to the questionnaire:

> The office of *president* of a *community-junior* college varies widely by administrative design at both the local and state level. It will vary also because each college adapts to the unique characteristics of the immediate community supporting the institution. Further variation is introduced by the nature of the people elected to the office.
>
> Remember that by "the president" is meant that person having chief responsibility for the day-to-day operation of a two-year postsecondary institution or college. Included, therefore, in this report are the views of people responsible to superintendents or to universities, people responsible to private foundation boards, and people responsible to religious orders. A variety of titles are presented as acceptable, such as Dean of the College, Extension Center Director, etc. The most commonly represented title was *president*.
>
> The one common thing which makes this report possible is that each president is chief administrator of an educational institution. Regardless of variations or how the particular situation is handled, there is available to him a great many responsibilities, challenges, considerable power, and many rewards.

Since the first questionnaire, two phenomena, not new, have mounted in intensity and impact to complicate the above definition: (1) the continued trend of removing the president of public junior-community colleges from the jurisdiction of a superintendent of a common school district and having the president report directly to a board of control, where he is directly in line of fire; and (2) the further development of the "chancellor" type of chief administrator, who is the chief policy-making administrator for a number of campuses operated within a community-junior college district.

The definition of a two-year college president presented earlier, and which was apparently acceptable to the field in 1965–66, is now amended here by describing what the president is not. The position does not necessarily include the "chancellor" type of junior college chief administrator. This position may have to be studied separately. Though the complexity of the position makes it substantially different from the usual presidency, it is quite possible that much of the role and responsibility, because of the necessity for the translation of leadership, will not be substantially different. It may also be that in any one situation the "chancellor" type of junior college president will retain control over the day-to-day operations of all or any one of the campuses under his overall direction. The other side of this question is whether a single campus president operating in a multi-campus district bears anything like the pressures of ultimate responsibility borne by those who respond directly to a board. The president of a smaller college often cannot escape the ultimate pressure of "the buck stops here." Yet presidents of many public community-junior colleges still report through a superintendent to a board and are really quite similar to the single-campus president in a multi-campus district.

In conclusion, the single-campus president is defined here as a president when he is deferred to by the chief administrator of the multi-campus district as having day-to-day control over the operations of the college he heads.

What Is a Junior or Two-Year College?

Unlike the subject of the junior college presidency, a substantial literature exists on the nature and function of the two-year college. It is not the intent of this paper either to expand or refine existing definitions. For the purpose at hand, the junior-community college is defined to include post-secondary institutions otherwise known as junior colleges, community colleges, vocational-technical institutes, and two-year extension centers, but it is not limited to these types. Excluded, by this definition, are single-purpose proprietary schools, such as beauty, barber, business, and electronics colleges, though the line gets very blurry when the purpose and function of a modern community college are compared with the purpose and function of a business or technical-type college.

When I sent one questionnaire, my mailing list included those institutions that were listed in the *College Facts Chart* as junior colleges but were *not* in the AAJC *Directory*. The response from these institutions was not high, but those that did respond presumably included themselves within the definition of a junior-community college put forth in the survey. They were, therefore, added permanently to the mailing list. By virtue of the definition of a president, I also added single campuses; thus, Los Angeles District would not be regarded as one college but as nine.

ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITY

This report deals only with the role and responsibility of the presidency. This section will review select writings from the literature on these topics, and the next section will deal with the findings of my studies. These findings will be concerned with what the president does, as reported principally by presidents. In part, the president's principal role and responsibilities can be deduced from his activity.

A Review of the Literature and Other Reports

Henderson is quoted in Blocker, Plummer and Richardson[4] as follows:

> What [i.e., the junior college presidency] formerly was a job as the principal of a preparatory program has become a role as educational leader, as community leader, and as the executive of a complex enterprise with many facets of management relating to personnel, program, plant, finance and public relations. It has become highly important that this educational leadership shall be exercised with the social vision and the professional understanding needed to implement the new concept.

Blocker and his associates add:[5]

> The president is the central link between the college and the community, as well as the director and coordinator of the organization's activities. A very brief examination of the activities of two presidents, one a public college president, the other a private college president, with the differences demonstrating, to the authors, the "pervasiveness of situational factors in shaping the activities of the chief executive."

I acquired, as a result of the Community College Act of 1967 for the State of Washington, a completely new board appointed by the governor with a completely new set of mandates under state law versus the former common school district type of operation. I completely agree with Newburn,[6] who notes that the roles of the president and his board are complementary and supportive. He notes further that the president is essentially a "pro among amateurs," who leads or helps the board in reaching policy-level decisions. In attempting to establish this "complementary and supportive" relationship, I wrote a calendar for the office of president, from which the following are excerpts:

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[4] C. E. Blocker, R. H. Plummer, and R. C. Richardson, Jr., *The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), p. 185.

[5] *Ibid.*

[6] H. K. Newburn, "The Board Meets the President, *Junior College Journal*, XXXV (Nov. 1964), 12–14.

> To understand the president's calendar, it is necessary first to take a look at the position. The president serves as the chief executive officer of the college. When the board is not in session he acts for the board and is charged with the management of faculty, curriculum, administration, personnel, student body and facilities in the light of policies established by the board, which, in turn, has acted for the state within the laws and regulations of the state. By practice and policy, the president represents the faculty, administration, personnel and student body to the board when it is in session. The president is charged by law to serve the board as secretary.
>
> Within the role of chief executive officer, the president represents the college officially in a variety of functions. This is practically a twenty-four-hour-a-day process for 365 days a year. This extended calendar is not only an operational requirement but an inescapable responsibility. There are, generally speaking, three distinct functions:
>
> 1) represent the college as head of a governmental unit, in this instance a state agency;
> 2) represent the college on legislative matters affecting the college and other institutions of education;
> 3) represent the college on official professional and public relations matters such as at state, regional and national association meetings, inaugurations of chief executives of other institutions, etc.
>
> Additionally, the president is a professional. As an educationist he is responsible for the promotion of the profession of education. Specifically as a leader in junior-community college education, he is expected to further this aspect of education. As an educator, the president has professional responsibilities to his own discipline should this be other than education and has a need as well as a responsibility similar to faculty for periodic refurbishment and growth.
>
> The nature of the presidency then dictates the total calendar. In response to the requirements of the position, three more or less distinct calendars are created to operate simultaneously. The priority of one calendar over any other will be in response:
>
> 1) to the immediate situation of the college in terms of development, available finances, and geography;
> 2) to the policies established by the board;
> 3) to the personality of the president;
> 4) to the requirements set by the State and which are beyond board review.
>
> The three calendars which make up the total are: (a) in-district; (b) out-of-district; and (c) professional and personal. In-district work refers to the principal duty station but involves a branch campus and five adult training centers. Out-of-district is a response to the pressures from state regulations, legislative and financial efforts and institutional memberships held by the college. Professional and personal calendar generates from leave approved by the board for institutes, workshops, or purely recreational leave.
>
> The total calendar of the president reflects pressures, challenges and responsibilities which are unique to the office. Though demanding, it yields one of the most fascinating jobs exisiting. It is a total effort to serve the educational needs of people by continuing to ask simply, "What can the college do for you?"

Responsibilities of the president are often described in a policy handbook, which is usually created in response to the board's need for education about the basic processes and positions of the college. Following are excerpts from such a description of the presidency, taken from a handbook of an Oregon college, for which it is impossible, now, to determine authorship:

> Basic to the administrative pattern are the responsibilities and the capabilities of the head of the community college. A president must have a respect for, and reasonable familiarity with, a wide range of post-high school educational objectives and the curricular program by which these ends might be served. He must associate with and have a degree of status among presidents and faculties of the four-year institutions, and must represent with authority important programs and developments in higher education.

The community-junior college president must continually work for the most effective integration of the educational programs with those of area high schools and with senior institutions to which many students will transfer. He must also relate the institution and its services to the occupational world to which a large percentage of his students will go. In this regard, he must be at home in the industrial and occupational activities of the community and be sensitive to the educational training needs and special patterns of training that must be developed to serve these needs.

The president will recommend the selection of faculty and staff to the board in order to secure services necessary to support a widely diverse curricula. In the organization of the faculty and in assignments made, one of the most difficult responsibilities rises—that of molding a highly professional staff in a common dedication to the institution's ideals and objectives.

Shannon,[7] in a study of the role of the president, drew this conclusion:

> They must understand the mission of the junior college and be able to convey this understanding to the community; their training should stress the social setting of the junior college; and finally, they should have a firm belief in democratization of higher education.

Although I totally agree with Shannon's central theme, my own experience as an instructor, a dean, and a president at three different public community colleges has been that the greatest difficulty is *not* in translating the philosophy of the comprehensive college to the community *but* in translating this philosophy effectively to the academic faculty. Also it is most difficult attempting to achieve "democratization" where it involves the students and their needs and not simply a kind of faculty involvement in administrative practices.

REPORT OF RESEARCH CONDUCTED TO DATE

Extracted from my surveys conducted to date are certain aspects of the presidency which deal with role and responsibility. Specifically, these deal with what the president, or others, feel the president ought to do, the source of pressures, and some judgments regarding satisfactions, frustrations, and relative success in the position.

What Should the President Do?

Paragraph A of the questionnaire, "So you've arrived! Now what do you do?" was concerned with what the newly elected president might best do immediately after election but before assuming his position. Tabulations here reported are based on 416 responses. The highest-ranking three of the alternative actions presented were:

1. Visit with faculty and administrators.
2. Familiarize yourself with personnel and characteristics of the board.
3. Review the budget and learn basic fiscal accounting and reporting procedures for the college.

Paragraph B was concerned with the first thing a president should do *after* assuming his position. The highest-ranking three alternatives presented were:

1. Call a general faculty meeting.
2. Call an executive meeting with board.
3. Call a general college meeting for both faculty and students.

In another questionnaire, the president was asked to rank on a ten-point scale the most pressing duties on campus and those that take him away from the campus. The results from 316 responses are noted below.

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[7] *The College President—A Bibliography*, p. 13.

On-campus work—most pressing (highest average ranking on a ten-point scale):

1. Faculty (3.11).
2. Budget and fiscal (3.89).
3. Board (4.02).
4. Public relations (4.45).
5. Physical plant, architecture (5.04).

Off-campus work—most pressing (highest average ranking on a ten-point scale):

1. Speeches and representation (2.91).
2. State meetings (3.04).
3. Other meetings (board) (3.43).
4. Legislative matters (3.89).
5. State money matters (4.44).

Principal Pressures on the President

From several questionnaires regarding the *principal pressures on* the office of the *president,* the following results were obtained.

A. *As seen by the president* (272 responses; results in percentages):

1. Faculty (24).
2. Financial and budget pressures (14).
3. Community pressures (11).
4. Board (9).
5. Administrative details—trivia (9).
6. Campus and facility development (8).
7. Students (8).
8. Other personnel than faculty (7).
9. Public relations (5).
10. Legislature and local politics (3).
11. State agencies—state superintendent (3).

B. *As seen by the faculty association* (152 responses; results in percentages):

1. Faculty (25).
2. Finances and budget (18).
3. Community pressures and parents (16).
4. Board (13).
5. Students (11).
6. Personnel, staff, administrative problems (4).
7. Campus and facility development (4).
8. Administrative details, time, correspondence (4).
9. Curriculum development (3).
10. Public relations (1).

C. *As seen by the president's secretary* (165 responses; results in percentages):

1. Administrative details, correspondence (20).
2. Faculty (18).
3. Financial and budget (16).
4. Public relations, speeches, press (11).

5. Community pressures, parents (8).
6. Personnel, staff, administrative problems (7).
7. Board (6).
8. Campus and facility development (5).
9. Students (5).
10. "Keeping everybody happy *and* in line" (5).

D. As seen by the wives of presidents (154 responses; results in percentages):

1. Faculty (28).
2. Community (21).
3. Board (17).
4. "Trivia" (14).
5. Finances (11).
6. Students (5).
7. Strivings of junior administrators (5).
8. State, county, district officers (3).
9. Development (3).
10. Business manager (1).
11. Parents (1).

What Presidents Want to Do

Presidents were asked what they would want to do if they had the time to do it. Their responses should be compared with what they listed as actually doing. The first five categories most frequently mentioned by 315 presidents as deserving more time were:

1. Faculty matters.
2. Personal professional growth.
3. Students and student affairs.
4. Public relations.
5. Curriculum development.

The President's Success and the Source of His Greatest Difficulty

Success is always relative in a presidency. Presidents were asked to list the most successful president they had ever known, and then to think of the president who had the most difficulty of any they had ever known, and then to give the most important ingredients for success and the sources of greatest difficulty. The results from 370 responses are listed below.

A. Most important ingredients for success (results in percentages):

1. Human relations skills (17.7).
2. Administrative skills, training, ability (14.9).
3. Intelligence (9.3).
4. Personal leadership ability (8.0).
5. Philosophical commitment, dedication (6.1).
6. Humility, wisdom, common sense (5.5).
7. Energy, stamina, health, drive (5.4).
8. Public relations skills (4.8).
9. Integrity, intellectual honesty (4.8).

10. Courage, guts, confidence (3.8).
11. Ability to delegate (3.8).

B. Sources of greatest difficulty for a president (results in percentages):

1. Faculty—recruitment, militancy (12.5).
2. Lack of human relations skills (10.5).
3. Finances, fund raising, budget (10.5).
4. Lack of administrative skill or training (8.7).
5. Poor board or poor board relations (6.5).
6. Isolation, withdrawal, poor communication (5.6).
7. Egotism (5.6).
8. Lack of public relations "know-how" (5.0).
9. Indecisiveness (4.1).
10. Lack of intelligence (3.3).
11. Inability to delegate authority (3.3).
12. Poor or inherited administrators (3.3).

Responses of Presidents' Wives

One hundred and fifty-four wives of two-year college presidents were asked, "What single characteristic contributed most to your husband's becoming a president?" The principal responses are noted below (results in percentages):

1. The five *D*'s—drive, determination, devotion, desire, dedication (29).
2. Personality and ability to work with people (17).
3. Administrative, organizational abilities (16).
4. Training, record, experience (11).
5. Intelligence (9).
6. Honesty, fairness (7).
7. Leadership (4).
8. Ability to listen, patience (3).
9. Self-discipline (1).
10. Luck—being in right place (1).
11. Miscellaneous (1).

The wives responded to the question "What single characteristic contributed most to your husband's success in staying on as president?" as follows (results in percentages):

1. Ability to work with people (21).
2. The five *D*'s—drive, desire, devotion, dedication, determination (18).
3. Administrative ability and training (18).
4. Honesty, fairness, integrity (10).
5. Hard work (8).
6. Patience (6).
7. Leadership (6).
8. Diplomacy (4).
9. Flexibility (3).
10. Sense of humor (2).
11. Miscellaneous (4).

Presidential Turnover

One questionnaire had asked why two-year college presidents seek to stay on (at some risk to health and reputation) or leave (in response to a wide variety of pressures and reasons). Two basic questions were asked in the questionnaire: (1) Where do presidents go when they are no longer president; and (2) Why do they leave the presidency?

A total of 287 presidents reported they had had predecessors at their present colleges. Turned the other way, 73 of the 360 presidents who responded apparently were founding, or first, presidents.

What happened to the predecessors? (results in percentages):

1. Retired (22).
2. Moved to another presidency (18).
3. Moved to four-year college or university (14).
4. Left education for other pursuits (10).
5. Went to a junior college but not as president (10).
6. Died in office (7).
7. Moved to state department of education (4).
8. Went into full-time graduate study (3).
9. Transferred by religious orders (3).

Why did the preceding president leave, in the opinion of his successor? (results in percentages):

1. Were offered "better" positions (29).
2. Were under pressure to leave (24).
3. Reached retirement age (22).
4. Died (7).
5. Left for health reasons (7).
6. Left for religious reasons (3).

Where the preceding president was under pressure to leave, the source of the pressure was (results in percentages):

1. Board of Directors/Trustees (41).
2. Faculty (19).
3. Organized elements in community (15).
4. Within the administration (6).
5. From state department of education (4).

Principal motivation to leave the presidency. If they were to leave the presidency, the presidents were asked, what would be the principal motivation to do so? There were only 304 responses to this question from the 360 presidents answering the questionnaire (results in percentages):

1. Advancement, better or more challenging position (25).
2. Too much present responsibility or pressure (22).
3. Another position in education (14).
4. Health, age, retirement required (14).
5. Restrictions and need for personal life (14).

SUMMARY

The junior college president's principal role is that of leader. His responsibility, therefore, is to offer leadership. He leads an increasingly important institution which is developing rapidly within the American educational system. However, if the leader and leadership offered are to be effective, they must be acceptable to the society supporting them and to the specific institution being led.

If leadership is to be established and accepted, it is necessary for the president to understand, represent, and interpret an educational philosophy. This involves, in reality, little actual philosophizing and much hard work, and it must be done in a fashion where communication is achieved.

The president's understanding of and ability to interpret the educational philosophy of the two-year college in terms consistent with the aspirations of the community will determine the goals and purposes of his college. Once they are established, the goals are approached through the design of educational practices and settings which allow the relative accomplishment or achievement of them. These practices and settings are established through administrative processes, the efficiency of which will depend upon the organizational and intellectual skills and talents of the leader and the quality of the leadership.

The effectiveness of a president will be influenced, to no little degree, by the amount of social wealth available to any college. In fact, a not uncommon measurement of a president's ability is his success or failure in attracting wealth to support the college. By wealth is meant the quality as well as the quantity of human as well as financial resources attracted. This includes the quality and quantity of faculty and staff, students, and total community support, in both financial and nonfinancial matters.

The effectiveness of a president is measured inevitably and properly by the society providing the wealth. Society has been led to expect certain results as a result of its investments in education. That it expects them to be achieved is reasonable and proper. The junior college is peculiar among post-secondary educational institutions in that its goals are calculatedly set closely to a broad spectrum of the needs, both short and long term, of the immediate social group as well as of the total social order. The effective president must provide for these social needs as adequately and efficiently as is possible. He must do so through the leadership he exerts on the instrument at hand—the two-year college.

CONCLUSION

The role and responsibility of the junior college presidency, then, involves both understanding the philosophy of the two-year college and possessing the technical and administrative skills for the successful translation of this philosophy into practice. It demands also the most effective leadership to accomplish these goals in an institution composed of emotional people. Furthermore, these goals must be pursued under the full scrutiny of a society with certain very pressing needs of its own, some of which, it has been told, and which it apparently believes, can be met by education as provided in two-year colleges. We can still succeed in meeting this expectation. We will do so only if we *keep the last man in line clearly in focus.* This may be a student who dropped out of high school and for whom the university offers nothing. He may have been in reform school twice, in and out of a couple of federally supported work-related programs, and he may not really want to be helped at all. However, if we lose sight of him, we may miss the opportunity to help when help is needed. We have told our supporting society that we are "the people's college"—this would seem to say we mean to try to help anyone. We have given hope to many people. To lead, as its president, an educational institution so dedicated is a humbling and gratifying experience. To lead it successfully requires dedication to and respect for people, including *a commitment to "the last man in line."*

FREDERIC T. GILES

SELECTING AND SECURING A JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT

Perhaps no one issue has burst so quickly into prominence in higher education as the securing and appointing of a president. In the past, many members of boards of trustees served multiple terms without ever being involved in this task. Presidents were assumed to be the constant or stable force, while trustees, faculty and students were considered the mobile or variable force.

This sudden prominence has resulted not only from the increase in the number of presidents appointed but from a more difficult factor, the changing role of the president in colleges. A review of the literature indicates that more articles on the appointment of a president were written in the past three years than in the previous thirty. Much of the literature, however, does not add to the development of sound guidelines and procedures for those faced with the awesome task of finding, convincing, and appointing a paragon of virtue who minimally meets the list of qualifications agreed on as prerequisites for the leader of their institution. (An exception is a publication by the American Council on Education, written by Frederick deW. Bolman, "How College Presidents Are Chosen.")

The purpose of this paper is not to comment on the shortage of the literature, nor is it to describe the characteristics of a good president; it is primarily to focus on how to proceed with the task of selecting and securing a president. Traditionally we have followed common practice, which may not be the best practice, since most boards of trustees who have completed the task have not been pleased with the process used.

I am going to clear the decks of most of the things I have found in the literature by listing a series of assumptions about the topic, on which we can agree, and then proceeding with how we can best perform the task. These assumptions are:

1. The board of trustees has the final responsibility for selecting and appointing a president.
2. The task of selecting and securing a president is one of the most important ever faced by a board of trustees.
3. Boards of trustees lack experience in participating in the process of selecting a president.
4. Faculty, students, alumni, and citizens have a bona fide interest and should be included in those phases of the selection process to which they can make a significant contribution.
5. There is no right man waiting in the wings who will meet the needs of all colleges.

6. Candidates do not necessarily prepare themselves or progress from rung to rung on a predetermined occupational ladder.
7. Most candidates do not openly run for the office of president, as they are too busy doing their present job.
8. There is no single "cookbook" method for the selection of the right man for the position.

While there is no single method or formula for securing and selecting a president, studies indicate that the lack of a definable process, agreed to and understood by interested parties, has, more than any other item, hampered the selection of a president.

My contention is that what is needed is the application of the basic principles of a planning and decision-making process to the problem of selecting a president.

Planning is defined by Webster as "the formulation of a proposed method of doing or making something or of achieving a given end." To me, planning is simply getting from here to there in a certain amount of time, under certain conditions, using given resources with an evaluation system which gives direction, and a knowledge of when the destination has been reached. Planning is based on the assumption that a systematic way of doing something is more efficient and effective than a disorderly approach which requires backtracking and duplicated effort. Planning is also based on the assumption that a systematic analysis of the problem is the process of applying forethought to the achievement of the problem. It also assumes that the attainment of a given goal will be best achieved by first devising a precise plan of action. A sound plan of action should include an operationally defined goal, a clear understanding of where one is, the actions required to reach the goal arranged in sequential order, the assignment of responsibilities, resources and time available, and a continuous check and evaluation system.

Decision making, as I am using the term, refers to making a decision in a systematic way based on all relevant information. The decision should be arrived at by a series of steps arranged in sequential order. Thus a model of decision making is developed in the process. For example, the decision-making model which I am going to apply to the securing of a president is:

1) Isolate the Problem;
2) Describe the Problem so that it is understood;
3) Collect and collate data relevant to the Problem;
4) Search for all possible alternate solutions;
5) Determine potential consequences of each alternative;
6) Determine desirability or undesirability of the consequences of each alternative;
7) Make the decision based on best judgment.

Using planning and decision making as the basis thus gives a framework for the development of the process. The process for selection must include the sequential steps to be taken, the persons involved in each step, and the time allocation for the completion of each step.

SEQUENTIAL STEPS IN THE PROCESS

Adapting the decision-making model to this problem the sequential steps could be:

1) Identifying goals of the college and implications for administration;
2) Developing criteria for the position;
3) Searching for applicants;
4) Screening the applicants;
5) Interviewing applicants;
6) Final selection.

Identifying Goals for the College and Implications for Administration

No better time will ever be presented for a careful analysis of the needs of the college and the role to be expected of the new president. The objective of the process is the matching of a person and an institution so that one meets the other's needs at a particular time in the history of both. The process should identify the areas in which the needs of the institution will be greatest in the decade ahead so that the search can be for a man to fill tomorrow's needs rather than yesterday's. Although the board is finally responsible for such an analysis, it should secure the participation of faculty, administration, students, alumni, and citizens. Besides contributing to the selection process, this activity can provide a basis for goal setting by the institution.

Developing Criteria for the Position

If the goals and needs of the college are identified, the development of criteria and qualifications for the position are much easier. In determining criteria, many people and groups can and should be asked to participate. Only those criteria and qualifications should be included which can be evaluated, otherwise the importance of the criteria diminishes.

Searching for Applicants

The pool of talent from which a president may be chosen must be as wide as possible. Seeking qualified people for the position may be the most crucial step in the process, since outstanding presidents can be selected only from outstanding candidates. In seeking out potential candidates, concern should be given to discovering those who indicate an interest. However, it is the responsibility of the institution and its representatives to create interest. Leave no stone unturned in discovering people who could do the job. You might be surprised who eventually becomes interested.

Screening the Applicants

Screening can usually be divided into at least two phases, initial screening and final screening.

Initial screening involves organizing the data for every applicant or referral in a similar fashion, so that a composite picture of the relevant data of all persons may be made. Initial screening will then be for the purpose of classifying all the applicants into broad screening categories, such as: (1) Meets all qualifications and criteria; (2) Meets most important qualifications and criteria; (3) Does not meet minimum criteria; (4) More information needed to classify.

Final screening consists of evaluating those who meet minimum qualifications so that those who should be interviewed and seriously considered for the position may be recommended to the board.

Interviewing Applicants

The interview is important in order to provide information which cannot readily be obtained by other methods. In order to make the interview an important contributor and yet to keep it as a part of the total process, it must be organized. The expected outcomes of the interview, the method of conducting it, and the questions to be asked must be designed in advance in order to bring about the desired outcomes.

Interviews can become too important in the final decision, unless they are organized properly.

Final Selection

The final selection is the responsibility of the board of trustees as a total group. Up to this point they should have made use of all help and assistance, but they are finally responsible for the decision. They should request further information, if necessary, but should make use of the results of the process and not play hunches at the last minute.

PERSONS INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS

Essential to the success of any decision is the involvement of persons who have both an interest and a contribution to make. The degree of their involvement will be determined by the board of trustees, since the members are responsible for the process and the decision. Moreover, the breadth of this involvement will be determined by the trust that the board has in the capacity of others to contribute to the process of making a better decision. If an atmosphere of competition prevails over the control of the selection rather than a feeling of cooperation, very little meaningful involvement will occur.

The best situation is one in which a positive approach is made to identify not only all those who can contribute to the selection process but also to determine when and in what way they can best assist. The list could include:

1) Board of trustees.
2) Retiring president.
3) Administrative personnel.
4) Faculty.
5) Nonacademic staff.
6) Students.
7) Alumni.
8) Citizens.

As important as determining who shall be involved is the specific determination as to how they will be involved.

TIME INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS

The amount of time for the total process may be predetermined or it may be left open. The important factor is that the total elapsed time must be compatible with the sum of the amounts of the time required for each action. Therefore, if possible, the best way of arriving at a time of appointment is by the accumulation of the times of the sequential steps in the process. The total time must be adjusted as each action is complete. Putting all these factors together, the form for the plan may look like the scheme in Table 1.

PUTTING THE PROCESS INTO OPERATION

Time spent at the outset to plan the procedures, organize the participants, and allocate the responsibilities will be repaid with interest as the process goes on.

Selecting a Consultant

Even though the board of trustees has a desire to develop a good process for selecting a president, the board frequently falls far short of this goal. The board should select a consultant or adviser to assist in developing a process by which a president can be selected. There are advantages to selecting a consultant who is not directly involved in the institution so that he will not be overinfluenced by any one segment.

Appointment of a Search and Screening Committee

This is the most important action of the board in the process until the time comes for final action. The committee should be composed of representatives of the various groups who are involved in the process. The selection of a president must be approached in a spirit of cooperation rather than in a spirit of competion. Therefore, I suggest one committee made up of representatives, rather than the traditional separate committees of the different groups. The main danger of separate committees is that they will commit themselves unrelentingly to different candidates, so that a compromise candidate becomes essential rather than necessarily the best.

The search and screening committee is the work committee which will develop and recommend to the board: a process for selection; descriptive material on the college and the position; procedures for securing candidates; a method for screening candidates; and a list of candidates to be interviewed. The committee may also perform specific functions at the request of the board.

The work of the committee in regard to candidates should be confidential but an accurate account should be kept of all considerations by the committee. The committee must always keep in mind that it is not a decision-making or selecting committee but the committee responsible for putting and keeping the process in motion.

Participants in the process should know about the process and be informed about the progress of the plan but not the recommendations of the committee. Information should be released only after a decision by the board to release it, and it should, thus, be released by them or through them.

Helpful Hints

1. The process should be distributed to all interested parties when approved by the board.

TABLE I
TIME ALLOWED FOR EACH STEP IN THE PROCESS

Time		Step	Board	President	College Administrator	Faculty	Students	Citizens	Search and Screening Committee	Consultants
Start *Complete*	1.	Identifying Goals of the College and Implications for Administration								
Start *Complete*	2.	Developing Criteria								
Start *Complete*	3.	Searching for Applicants								
Start *Complete*	4. 5.	Initial Screening Second Screening	Screening Committee							
Start *Complete*	6.	Interview								
Start *Complete*	7.	Final Selection								

2. The materials designed to announce the position should be developed to attract people to consider the position; should be inclusive enough to elicit interest but not to answer all potential questions and concerns; should be of high quality but not promotional; should include information about the community, the college, the presidency, and the qualifications and criteria for the position. Instead of the usual application form, a presidential data sheet is preferable. This sheet should include the kind of information which will be used and it should allow the candidate to organize his application.
3. Solicit names of potential candidates and follow up on these names rather than soliciting firm applicants. Establish a process of automatic communication and follow up with each person contacted, or who contacts, about the position.
4. Keep on schedule and notify all participants in the process whenever the schedule changes.
5. Use objective evaluation forms for each candidate and evaluate all candidates.
6. The board should be kept informed of progress by being requested to act upon all procedures and information and by having copies of all materials.
7. Once the process has been set in motion, it should be completed even though a person is not selected.

The selection of a president is an awesome task, but, if properly done, it can provide opportunities for reflection on an evaluation and clarification of the goals and objectives of the college as well as meaningful involvement of all segments of the college. Although an orderly professional process will not guarantee an outstanding president, it will provide a greater opportunity for the one selected to become outstanding.

JOHN LOMBARDI

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT AND THE FACULTY

NATURE OF THE CHANGING RELATIONSHIP

The relationship between the president and the faculty is undergoing a change that has no parallel in the history of the junior college. This change, or revolution, has not sprung full-blown from anyone's brow, it is not a sudden occurrence. But, like any change, it is noticed only after it has affected many people.

The nostalgia with which some presidents remember the "generally harmonious relationships between faculty members and administrators,"[1] like all reminiscences, glosses over many unpleasant incidents that resulted in resignations and dismissals of presidents. Even the membership drives of the NEA and AFT affiliates are explained as breaches of faith rather than as warnings of faculty disaffection. Presidents have not learned much from the strikes, boycotts, sanctions that were so common in the elementary and secondary schools, assuming, no doubt, that conditions in the colleges were satisfactory to the faculty. But today, nostalgia cannot help the presidents who are confronted by strikes, by aggressive faculty actions for more participation in decision making, by organizational drives for bargaining rights, and by laws in at least ten states requiring negotiation with faculty or their organizations. Today, presidents are involved not in determining whether or not to have faculty participation in administration but how to adjust to such participation.[2]

DIFFICULTY IN ANALYSIS OF CAUSES

No one really knows why this upheaval has taken place. Many reasons and theories have been expressed, all having some plausibility; but it is evident that they do not explain the universality of the agitation among the faculty and other groups for more self-determination. This analysis suffers from the same deficiency.

If the agitation among junior college faculty were an isolated phenomenon unrelated to the unrest among instructors and faculties from elementary school to university—among students, among nuns, among priests, among other governmental employees, among youth—finding a solution for eliminating the causes of the unrest might be simple. Specific grievances could be redressed and harmony restored. But a movement so widespread as this one implies a change in relationships as fundamental as changes which have occurred during other dislocations in history.[3]

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[1] Bill J. Priest, "Faculty Administrator Relationship," *Junior College Journal*, XXXIV (Mar. 1964), 5.

[2] Arnold R. Weber, Chairman, AAHE Task Force, "Faculty Participation in Academic Governance" (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1967), 33–39; Stuart C. Smith, "Collective Negotiations in Education: A Review of Recent Literature," ERIC/CEA Supplement (Clearing House on Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1968).

Egalitarianism

The present unrest may be considered a resumption of the long egalitarian struggle which began with the breakup of feudalism. Particular grievances of the faculty and other groups may be serious; but teachers and faculties, students, minorities, nuns, priests, government employees, youth seem to be seeking fulfillment of self, identity, self-determination, belongingness, or, in brief, a desire to be considered essential in the scheme of our expanding institutions, cities, nation, world, and universe. They are trying to free themselves from the stultifying effects of conformity which White, in *The Organization Man,* described as characteristic of modern society. Sociologically, especially among junior college instructors, the unrest is characterized as a "rise in human expectations."[4] Although this explanation helps very little, since no formula exists for assisting the faculty to acquire a "place in the sun," it has the merit of freeing the president from the delusion that redressing a specific grievance will resolve unrest or eliminate faculty militancy.

Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy, which is an inevitable concomitant of large organizations, contributes to the alienation among faculty. The larger the college, the larger the bureaucracy, "the more anxiety among faculty men, and the more tension between the president and faculty."[5] As the number of administrators increases, the distance between the president and the faculty widens, especially in those colleges in which line-of-command arrangements approach those in large businesses and in the military services. Although not as rigid as in military organizations, where "one cannot communicate with the commanding officer without first talking to one's immediate superior . . . the mere perception of the existence of a hierarchy sets up restraints against communication."[6]

Senator Henry M. Jackson, speaking about bureaucracy, noted that "unnecessary clearances plus concurrences," make for "unnecessary intrusions on the time of instructors working on problems of real importance."[7] And, as someone else remarked, "if the junior college resembles General Motors plants in size and spirit [and if the president] thinks and talks like a General Motors executive, he should not be surprised if the faculty begin to think like members of the United Automobile Workers."[8]

The parallel with business and industrial organizations cannot be overemphasized, since presidents are influenced by business and industrial leaders who dominate boards of trustees, service clubs, and communication media. Even the theoretical and practical principles of educational administration and management have their origins in studies made for business organizations.[9]

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[3] Dan L. Thrapp, "Roman Catholic Changes Seen in Authority Crisis," *Los Angeles Times,* May 29, 1968, Part II, p. 6, is an excellent summary of similar unrest in the Catholic Church.

[4] Ray A. Howe, "Collective Bargaining for Teachers," *North Central Association Quarterly,* XLII (Winter 1968), 253. See also Roger H. Garrison, *Junior College Faculty: Issues and Problems* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1967), pp. 52–57.

[5] Robert Presthus, "University Bosses: The Executive Conquest of Academe," *New Republic,* CLII (Feb. 20, 1965), 20.

[6] Bobker Ben Ali, "Communication in a City College?" (mimeo. term paper, Education 261D, University of California, Los Angeles, Winter 1967).

[7] Presthus, *op. cit.*

[8] Daniel Hallowell, "What's Wrong with Our Students," *New Republic,* CLII (Feb. 20, 1965), 20 (quotation altered); see also Weber, p. 32.

Collegiality Reasserted

Faculty members have countered this bureaucratic trend by insisting that a faculty should be self-governing and that authority ought to reside in the faculty. The American Federation of Teachers unequivocally asserts:

> Two groups in higher education make policy—the board and the faculty. It is the function of the administration to implement policy, not to make it. A good administrator under such a system is the servant of the faculty and not its director. He executes policy as it is formulated.[10]

Although in American colleges and universities the idea of collegiality has never been more than a theory, nevertheless, advocates of faculty participation in administration keep resurrecting it. It will not serve much purpose to relate the long history of this development. Today, it is a fact that junior college instructors, acting on the theory, are seeking participation in the administrative process and are forcing the president to adjust to this new relationship. Whereas in the past the president determined the kind and extent of faculty participation in the governance of the college, today the faculty are setting guidelines for their participation.

So it should not be surprising that everywhere the administrative prerogatives of the president are being reduced by the faculty, acting through their academic senate, negotiating council, and professional and labor organizations. In one area after another, the president is being asked either to share his prerogatives with or surrender them to the faculty. The fiction is still maintained that the president has ultimate authority for the administration of the college, but even the fiction evaporates when a collective agreement is drafted in which the lines of responsibility are enumerated. Such an agreement becomes more than a delegation of authority by the president; it becomes a division or sharing of authority usually forced upon the president by the faculty or representatives of a faculty or representatives of a faculty organization. Our colleges are "struggling with a crisis in authority which . . . is resulting in broadening and deepening decision-making."[11] A prediction worth heeding is: "We will live to see the total operation of the school system become the accepted and recognized subject of teacher-board negotiations."[12]

Basic to the idea of collegiality is the absence of the superior-subordinate relationship so essential in business and military organizations. In a college, the faculty are the educational and intellectual equals of the president. An instructor who chooses to remain in the classroom rather than lose caste among his colleagues for the decision is congratulated on his good judgment. What respect a college president receives from the faculty must be earned by scholarship, leadership, or administrative ability.

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[9] Howe, p. 253.

[10] Ralph Schloming, "Academic Senates for Junior Colleges" (mimeo. statement by the Executive Secretary of the California State Federation of Teachers, Jan. 1963). See also, "Let's Negotiate" (leaflet of AFT College Guild, AFT Local 1521, Hollywood, California, Nov. 1965).

[11] Thrapp, *op. cit.*

[12] Peggy Heim, "Growing Tensions in Academic Administration," *North Central Quarterly,* XLII (Winter 1968), 251.

Aggressiveness of Faculty Organization Leaders

Another element in today's relationship a president must understand is the drive of leaders of faculty organizations who want to justify the reason for the existence of their organizations and for their own importance. Once organizations have been created, a sort of Parkinson's law sets in. The organizations must have meetings, they must have agendas, they must produce results. So it is with leaders of faculty organizations. It would not matter if after the first meeting all of the grievances were removed, the leaders would still need an agenda for the second meeting. If no items existed, one or more would be invented. Leaders of faculty organizations do not recommend dissolution of their organizations or relinquish powers voluntarily. "An organization which obtains its membership support by virtue of the fact that it serves as the *aggressive and combative champion* of the faculty must present demands, parade its strength, and exert force."[13]

Influence of Students, Board, and Legislators

While only occasional references will be made to students, the local board of trustees, state board, legislator and other public and private groups, the president and the faculty are influenced by their presence, reactions, and/or ideas concerning their roles in the governance of the college. Five examples will be sufficient to indicate the extent of this influence.

One, how the president interacts with activist students on campus often affects the faculty's attitude toward the president and this has its effects on the president-faculty relationship. At Columbia University, recently, the president lost the support of the faculty because he was accused of condoning police violence in vacating one of the buildings held by the Students for a Democratic Society. *Two,* in a multi-college district, the president of a college usually does not participate in collective negotiations, yet the agreement between the board and the faculty will affect his authority and his relationship to the faculty. *Three,* the legislature often grants concessions to the faculty, such as the right to organize a senate which limits the president's prerogatives. *Four,* the character of the community in which the college is located influences the president's attitude and relationship toward the faculty. *Five,* the president and the faculty must adjust not only to each other but to the time or period in which they are functioning. The president's philosophy in the late 1960's is different from the one he may have had in the 1950's, because the forces acting upon him then were different from those existing in the late 1960's.

Eclecticism: Higher Education and Public School Practices

In this description of president-faculty relations, it is apparent that although junior college faculty identify with higher education rather than secondary education, and although they conclude that their rights, privileges, and responsibilities must be commensurate with their official membership in higher education, the president-faculty relations do not parallel exactly those in the senior institutions. Many of the basic public school laws still apply to junior colleges. The legal transition from secondary- to higher-education status is taking place but not as rapidly as had been anticipated or desired. Tradition, custom, and law are not easily changed. So it is with president-faculty relations. All we can say is that the direction is toward the higher-education practices.

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[13] *Ibid.*

The president and faculty take advantage of this indeterminate status when it suits their purposes. For example, the president relies on public school laws when he requires faculty to stay on campus a certain number of hours and establishes procedures to enforce this regulation. Faculty, in California, resist attempts to abolish teaching credentials, probably as an added protection against presidential power. In multi-campus districts the president retains the authority to transfer an instructor to another campus and the faculty insist on the right to transfer when it is convenient to them. These practices are not usually found in other higher-education institutions or systems.

Multiple Relationships

When we speak of the president and the faculty we may unwittingly assume that this is a one-to-one relationship. But it should be obvious that it is a more complicated and complex relationship, even omitting the multiple facets of each individual's personality. The president must adjust to or accommodate a dozen or more relationships, for among his faculty are groups supporting or opposing every modern issue or cause: the draft, free speech, free press, civil rights, Black power, SDS, abolition of parietal rules and many others.

Broadly speaking, almost every important presidential decision on these issues has implications for the cherished myths of some faculty group on freedom in its broadest connotations for the equally sanctified convictions of another faculty group on the necessity to uphold law and maintain order. The nonactivists hold the balance of power, usually on the side of the president, if they would but exercise it; but rarely are they willing to take a position opposing the activists unless their interests and security are in jeopardy.

A faculty member also has adjustments to make, but for him this is simple, since he has to adjust to but one president at a time. Even if we take into account the various and sometimes conflicting personalities of the president, the adjustment is still comparatively simple.

Educational Conservatism of Faculty

Finally, as a background, a president must understand the inherent educational conservatism of the faculty. One of the many paradoxes in education is that faculty tend to be educational conservatives and social and political liberals, whereas administrators lean toward educational liberalism and social and political conservatism. The old quip that it is easier to move a cemetery than it is to change the curriculum has a great deal of truth. As a result of this conservatism, a college is like the Indian village, described by Gunnar Myrdal, with a strong vested interest, "which seems to insure that what comes in from outside is eventually diverted into the old power structure and used to suppress change rather than to encourage it."[14]

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[14] Kenneth Boulding, review of *Asian Drama*, in *New Republic*, CLVIII (May 4, 1968), 25.

Variability of Prescriptions

In the light of this background, the question is posed, what does a president think he must do or how does he think he must act in order to create a relationship with the faculty which will enable him to accomplish the purposes of his office? There are means available to the president which will make his relationship with the faculty a satisfying one, but the means will not give the president the key to the elimination of conflict or tension, even though he is "more concerned with keeping [his] faculty happy than with placating any other single group."[15] Administrative ability and leadership qualities depend on too many variables to be subject to simple analysis. The most that can be done is to indicate some attributes that are essential; but after these are pointed out it still comes back to the qualities of the individual, his ability, his perceptions.

Discovering Faculty Aspirations

Discovering the aspirations, the perceptions, the desires, the grievances of the faculty is an important activity of the president. The most direct way would be to ask each faculty member. Individual communication with the faculty member is possible and sometimes effective if the faculty member is alert, able to communicate, and willing to be frank. In today's relationships, however, this method has serious limitations. Aside from the enormity of the task in a large college, few people are willing to be bearers of bad tidings, fearful of the fate that is attributed to such individuals. Moreover, the president who hopes to find out what the faculty think of him from one of them may be almost as naive as the dowager who expects to find out what poor people think of her from her maid; yet, knowing what the faculty think of him is important. President Harry Truman said: "The president hears a hundred voices telling him that he is the greatest man in the world. He must listen carefully indeed to hear the one voice that tells him he is not."

An alert president, if he reads his mail, will have no difficulty learning about the attitude of the faculty as a group. The faculty senate and the teacher organizations, through their bulletins, newspapers, magazines, and other publications, express the aspirations and demands of the group articulately, forcefully, and often arrogantly. These expressions may not represent unanimity of feeling, but they represent the feeling of the leaders and the spokesmen, and, as long as the faculty do not repudiate them, the president must accept them as those of the faculty. If he ignores them, thinking they do not represent the views of the faculty, he will find himself in trouble.

Other barriers to communication may be self-imposed, as is true when a faculty member stands in awe of the president. A faculty member who wishes to avoid giving his colleagues the impression that he is courting favor is reluctant to visit with the president. Likewise, the president, in an effort not to overawe the faculty member, tends to remain aloof. A barrier is also created by the several organizational arrangements. Not only are faculty members constrained by their colleagues to avoid over-fraternization with the president, but their organizations sometimes restrict communication between the individual faculty member and the president.

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[15] Christopher Jencks and David Reisman, *The Academic Revolution* (New York: Doubleday, 1968), as quoted in *Carnegie Quarterly*, XVI (Spring 1968), 3.

It is considered unseemly or unprofessional for the president or the faculty member to circumvent the "orderly" procedures established between the president and the organization. Some may be more prescriptive than others. Militant faculty organizations discourage individual conferences; some require all communications to be conducted through the organizations' representatives.

Personal Concern for Faculty

It is difficult to relate some of the "minor" activities that help the president create an atmosphere of cordial relations with his faculty. But these "minor" activities are important, for no matter how rigid bureaucracy may be, or how restrictively collective agreements may be drafted, the president and his faculty are still human beings subject to common frailties and virtues. The president still retains much respect because of his position, because of his knowledge of school law and regulations, because of the many times he is asked to pass judgment on the faculty, because of his wider acquaintance with the college, faculty, and community. If his status is used for the benefit of the individual on the staff, if the knowledge and experience are translated into help for the staff, if the wider acquaintance can be of service, then the president will secure faculty acceptance of his leadership.

Barriers to communication with the faculty may also be overcome or scaled by opportunities given to the president by faculty members who want to be associated with him because of personal attraction or because of his position. People still want to be close to "royalty." These opportunities will be available to the president in the normal course of events. When he moves about the campus he meets faculty members with whom he exchanges pleasantries, listens to gripes or requests, inquires about college or personal concerns, or merely greets with a word, a smile, or a waving of the hand. Communication is made up of these simple, almost passing, actions as well as by formal meetings. Only the most rabid anti-authoritarian members of the faculty will refuse to accept the position of the president as the first among equals.

Life implies movement, change, some pleasant, some tragic, some in-between. A wedding, a birth, an accident or a death in the family, a return from illness or sabbatical, an honor or award, completion of a project such as a yearbook or a term as officer of a committee or faculty senate, and many others too numerous to mention are occasions when letters, as personal as the president can make them, are most effective in communication. If enough people receive such letters, the president will discover that he will be kept informed of such events, which in turn will give him more opportunities for communication with the faculty.

Faculty members need and seek help on many occasions. Illnesses, lapses from normal behavior, family conflicts, difficulties with off-campus individuals, students, and colleagues, financial problems, loneliness, are a few of the occasions when faculty members need advice, counsel, assurance, help. On these occasions a president takes on a function which approaches that of a psychiatrist, family counselor, or adviser. On these occasions the president's sensitivity, sympathy, empathy, wisdom are more important than his knowledge. Even when the outcome may be the separation of the faculty member because of some deviant behavior resulting in the revocation of a credential, the president must heed the admonition

"Let him who hath no sin, cast the first stone." This does not imply condoning or approving the action, but it does imply a willingness to help the faculty member in whatever way is available to the president. The separation, if that must be the outcome, is not a time for moralizing.

Of great importance is the courage of the president in defending a faculty member who may have offended the community by unpopular opinions. He may very well disapprove the faculty member's opinions; but he does not permit harrassment of the faculty by outsiders nor does he fall in the trap of having a star chamber proceeding with the outsider and the instructor. If reprimand may be necessary, the president must be the one to administer it in private. Today, because charges of racism or prejudice are becoming serious problems for faculty, the president must also have the courage to stand by a faculty member who may not come up to the expectations of militant black, brown, or white students.

Interest in Faculty Activities

Appearances at activities sponsored by faculty or departments or groups are another form of communication. These occasions, involving the work of the faculty, and/or students, no matter how trivial or ordinary they may seem to the president, are extremely important to the faculty. These appearances (or failures to appear) will be construed as measures of the president's interest in the faculty and the college activities they sponsor. Expressing appreciation in faculty bulletins or at faculty meetings is necessary but neither is a substitute for personal appearances.

Appearances which usually require greetings from the president are natural opportunities for expressing points of view or philosophy, or for commenting on important events or happenings as they relate to the activities. Sometimes, they can be used for launching a proposal for the improvement of some phase of the educational program.

Many opportunities are available to the president to communicate formally with the faculty. The opening day of college, faculty meetings, in-service sessions, orientation of new instructors, commencement, charter or founder's days are such occasions. Contrary to popular opinion, faculty welcome these occasions when the president uses them for significant statements about the college, the faculty, the students, the educational program. Faculty members appreciate a president's willingness to share with them his views on the issues affecting the college and education. Eliminating all faculty meetings, as has happened on some campuses, may be temporarily popular but, as at Columbia University, it may also lead to a "lack of dialogue" that contributes to poor president-faculty relationships.[10]

However, if faculty meetings and other occasions are used for trivial announcements, for announcements not of college-wide interest, for venting piques or grievances, communication becomes negative, raising another barrier—hostility or inattentiveness.

All of this activity takes time but not as much time as is spent at service club meetings, luncheons, conventions, and other off-campus junkets. Presidents, like university professors, are being called to Washington and the state capitals to act as advisors, consultants, sounding boards. And being as flattered by this new attention as the professors are, they, too, may be tempted to give priority to these activities above those on campus. The anomie, the Robinson Crusoe Syndrome,[17] the lack of identity, "the reduction in the personal-attention quotient and the intensification of feelings of insecurity"[18] experienced by the faculty may result as much by the growing interest of the president with off-campus activities as by the growth in size of the campus.

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[10] James H. Billington, "The Humanistic Heartbeat Has Failed," *Life*, LXIV (May 24, 1968), 32.

Many of these off-campus activities are important; the president must participate in them in the interest of the college and as his contribution to the community and to the advancement of education. But they cannot be the excuse for neglecting his primary duty as president of the college. Professor James Billington's remarks about the university president applies to the junior college president. He wrote:

> In its relentless search for money, the modern university has let concern for "image" replace aspirations for an ideal. Public relations with the outside world has often become more important than human relations within the university itself.[19]

Delegation of the college functions to others sometimes reaches proportions leading to the loss of the president's influence in the college. The president, if he permits this to happen, must not be surprised if the faculty turn to others for leadership.[20]

Building Morale

If the observation that faculty members seek identity to preserve their individuality, to prevent depersonalization, has substance, then the president cannot ignore this large area of responsibility. In assessing the effectiveness of his efforts, the president should not overlook the diffusion or the spread of knowledge of his actions among other faculty members. A good deed or a bad one directed at one faculty member affects not only that faculty member but all who hear about it. Rarely is an action of a president involving a faculty member confidential. The president's reputation is made on the basis of many decisions involving many faculty members. High morale or low morale depends on these actions.

ADMINISTRATIVE AREAS INFLUENCED BY THE PRESIDENT

Large areas of administration still exist in which the presidential prerogatives predominate.[21] For example, in this review, little has been said about curriculum and teaching, budget making, building, and students. These are areas in which teacher-organization influence is at a minimum and presidential influence is at a maximum. Here, administrative initiative can flourish; here, leadership is sought by the faculty. In these areas, academic senates and teacher organizations have been unable to provide leadership or to muster support aside from an occasional conference on "Good Teaching."

Curriculum

Teacher groups and academic senates have little influence over the curriculum, partly because the latitude of the president and faculty to influence the transfer curriculum is not large. Tradition, plus university and state college dominance, is too pervasive and overriding for much experimentation. In the technical-vocational area, the president usually takes the lead in encouraging administrators, department chairmen, and faculty members to seek new programs, update current programs, and eliminate obsolete programs. Sometimes a teacher organization may object to a technical-vocational program, but without too much effect. Resistance from some teacher groups is most pronounced in the curriculum area relating to the development of programs for the low-aptitude student. Even here it is not well organized; not well articulated. Some expressions of doubt or concern have been voiced but, for the present, they are subdued. In nearly every college in which a commitment to help disadvantaged and low-aptitude students has been made, the president has provided the initiative, the encouragement, and the resources. Harold Howe, in an address to the AAUP, placed the blame on faculty for fencing "out the children of the poor and the victims of discrimination."[22] Teacher groups have even tried to bring about modification of the open door, but the strong tradition favoring it, coupled with the possible adverse effects on job security of faculty, have been tempering factors.

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[17] Donald A. Erickson, "A Fast Express Named 'Militance,'" *North Central Quarterly*, XLII (Winter 1968), 229.

[18] Heim, p. 248.

[19] Billington, *op. cit.*

[20] See John W. McConnell, "Autocracy Versus Democracy in Top Administration," in Kerry Smith, *In Search of Leaders* (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1967), p. 85.

[21] See Weber, pp. 18–19, for a summary statement on this topic.

Instruction

In the instructional area, strong presidential leadership is responsible, in cooperation with individuals, groups, and departments, for modification of syllabuses, introduction of new media, development of team teaching, experimentation with new scheduling patterns. Teacher organizations, except in their demands for smaller classes, reduced load, and teaching aides such as readers, clerical help and technicians, have not made much of an impression. This is still an area in which the president's influence outside the classroom, of course, is dominant.

Building Program

Another area of relative unconcern to teacher groups is building. Here, again, any faculty influence on the building program comes through individual or departmental influence, usually under presidential guidance. In a college where faculty members have shared in the planning or modification of buildings, the president has discovered that rather than losing his importance, he has enhanced it, because this sharing of decision-making has resulted in better teaching facilities.

Supervision of Students

Except in very minor instances, supervision of students—including admission, registration, retention and dismissal, graduation, and activities outside the classroom—remains predominantly an administrative prerogative. Academic senates and faculty groups have shown some interest in this area, but organizations are not in a position to undertake responsibilities here, because legal requirements limit discretion in the admission of students as well as in their retention and dismissal. In the area of student activities, organizations may give moral support to and encourage students in their activism, but as a rule, even militant faculty members avoid activities in which unpleasantness may be associated in the form of disciplinary action or possible arrest. Faculty and their organizations prefer the role of defenders of students who are having difficulties with the president.

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[22] *Chronicle of Higher Education*, II (May 6, 1968), 1, 5.

A change seems to be in the making: as faculty are attacked as racists, as their grading practices and class attitudes are questioned, and as demands for their removal from certain classes increase, they are discovering that students consider them as much a part of the establishment as is the president. Student demands for freedom from faculty tyranny may become as numerous, as arrogant, and as violent as those against the president and other administrators.

The recent incidents at Stanford and at Columbia may seem contradictory to this assertion. In reality, they are not, since in neither university did the activists attack the faculty or their prerogatives. In those places such as Peralta and Los Angeles, where black students or radical whites called for the elimination of so-called "racist" faculty members or interfered with instruction, the faculty rallied to the support of the president. Evidence is abundant that because of the excesses of students during the past year, the president who has shown firmness in his dealings with the students involved has been given a vote of confidence by his faculty.

Budget Making

In budget making, the influence of the faculty is indirect. The gains made in salaries, fringe benefits, and reduced teaching loads affect the budget. In most negotiations, faculty insist on resolving these issues early in the budget-making process, because they have learned from experience that the president and his staff usually leave only a small amount for these items when these issues are left to be resolved last. Thus the allotments to salary and fringe benefits determine those for other items rather than vice versa, as before. Aside from this limitation, serious though it may be, the president retains a major influence in budget making.

Overall Development of Institution

On the credit side must be placed the role of the president in the overall development of the institution: indicating the direction of development, setting the tone, modifying organizational patterns, and encouraging faculty in a variety of directions. In this limitless area, he has not only the force of custom and law, but the desire of the faculty for leadership. He represents the institution within and without as no other individual or group can. Aside from any superior personal quality he may have, he has, by virtue of his title, the initiative in leadership, in administration. A recent survey revealed that "in selecting their own jobs, faculty members give evidence that they value good administration."[23]

The way in which the president provides leadership determines his effectiveness. This is important, since merely being called president does not assure administrative competence nor leadership ability. The president must still know "how to make those powers work for *him* . . . how to be on top in fact as well as name."[24] For, as John Gardner wrote:

> If anything significant is to be accomplished, leaders must understand the social institutions and processes through which action is carried out. . . . A leader, whether corporation president, university dean, or labor official, knows his organization, understands what

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[23] *University* [of California] *Bulletin*, XVI (April 22, 1968), 146.

[24] Richard E. Neustodt, *Presidential Power: The Politics of Leadership* (New York: John Wiley, 1960), p. vii.

makes it move, comprehends its limitations. Every social system or institution has a logic and dynamics of its own that cannot be ignored.[25]

The president, of course, does not act alone. Most of the day-to-day activities, the execution of policies, are the responsibility of other administrators, who, by their performance, affect the relations between the president and the faculty. Although the president begins his tenure with administrators already in office, in a short time he gets opportunities to fill vacancies which become to the faculty, "visible, unmistakable signs of his standard of values, irrevocable declarations of the qualities he prizes on his staff."[26]

THE PRESIDENT'S ROLE TODAY

In a period of rising faculty influence in the governance of junior colleges, it is natural to become discouraged or to feel that the president is losing his position. Conflict seems to be replacing harmony. The one-happy-family idea has disappeared, assuming that it ever existed. The changes that have taken place and that may continue to take place are not easy to accept, for no matter how democratically inclined a president may be he will resist the efforts of the faculty, especially as they are pushed by faculty organizations, to deprive him of his administrative responsibilities and to some extent of his leadership role. Moreover, a president may be as ignorant of the undercurrents of today's unrest as were Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette of the undercurrents of eighteenth-century France. The president in his ignorance may match the militancy of the faculty by refusing as obdurately as any king, nobleman, or prelate to give up his prerogatives. As a consequence, we should not expect an easy resolution of the present unrest.

Roles Not Interchanged

A president, reluctant as he may be to give up any of his prerogatives, cannot resist being carried along by the currents as on a raft down a long, narrow gorge. The faculty are seeing to that. But as long as he is guiding the raft, he can avoid the large boulders or prevent it from capsizing.

However, though today's revolution may force some presidents to resign rather than submit to the "usurpation" of their prerogatives, accommodation is taking place. More important, the roles of president and faculty are being modified, not reversed. The president still administers and leads, the faculty still teach. We know that in Chicago and in Dearborn and Macomb County, Michigan, where faculty have obtained collective agreements, the presidents still function. We know that in many universities in which academic senates have great responsibility in the governance of the universities, presidents and chancellors have not been replaced by faculty. Despite the many gains of labor unions, the presidents of firms still retain responsibility for management. These examples should reassure presidents that in the junior colleges the essential relationships between the president and the faculty will not be fundamentally changed, although "the times ahead may, indeed, be hard for him."[27]

As the number of accommodations increases and as the fears of takeover by the senate or negotiating council or AFT or NEA prove unfounded, the specter of doom will vanish. Aggressiveness and extreme demands by the faculty will also be moderated as faculty get security through tenure, good salaries and fringe benefits, recognition of their right to bargain on issues, and reasonable opportunity for participation in administration.

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[25] John Gardner, "The Antileadership Vaccine," *Annual Report* (New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1965), p. 6.

[26] Antony Jay, *Management and Machiavelli*, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston), as quoted in *Fortune*, LXXVII (Apr. 1968), 220.

[27] Heim, p. 251.

Though the faculty may wish to participate, it is unlikely that they will want the responsibility of administering, and it is not possible for a multitude to assume the role of leadership. Faculty organizations, like labor organizations, will lose their reason for being if they become administrative organs, because then they will be the antagonists of their own members, they will be the producers of grievances. Unless we experience a form of sovietization, it is likely that demands on the president will be made just short of usurping his functions as administrator and leader.

Circumvention of Faculty Aspirations Is Impractical

Efforts to subvert, circumvent, immobilize, or contain faculty organizations will be as unsuccessful as those made by employers to discourage employee organizations in a previous era. Some college presidents think faculty want them to be their associates in the educational process. Despite all of the turmoil in higher education—not to mention that in the elementary and secondary schools—despite all of the evidence that faculty want to determine for themselves what they desire, the hope persists that "a campus council, representative of the total professional staff, which will provide the opportunity for dialogue concerning the various aspects of the total educational program"[28] or "the development of responsible, thoughtful, and ethical college and university governance"[29] will mollify faculty or eliminate the drive for self-determination. Faculty want dialogue, but they want it as equals across a bargaining table; they will no longer accept unilateral action. This is the lesson to be learned from the state laws compelling boards to negotiate. This is the lesson to be learned from strikes, sanctions, work stoppages, slowdowns in extracurricular activities. Faculty want to cooperate with the president but the cooperation must be among equals. The pendulum has swung so far in this direction that the American Association of School Administrators announces "teachers, not administrators, will control the decision for or against continued unity in the profession."[30]

Accommodation to New Relations

As a new generation of presidents replaces the old, accommodation will be easier. The new presidents will be former faculty members, possibly former leaders of the senates or of the faculty organizations. They will not be nostalgic for an era they did not know.[31]

I sense, also, that the pendulum may be swinging away from the more extreme demands for faculty participation. The unfavorable public and governmental reaction to the FSM movement and subsequent violent activist activities have strengthened the president, not only in Berkeley but elsewhere. Faculty may become aware that "strife and diviseness . . . increase the probability that the power of decision will be taken away from the [college] to be exercised by the trustees, at government level, or in a court. . . .[32] Demands for firmer presidential initiative and control are being made by governors and legislators who are using the indirect method of budget control to temper faculty agitation. Yet, after all this has been said, I do not think that "the war between college faculties and presidents" will end.

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[28] Joseph P. Cosand, "Faculty Organizations—Faculty-Administrator—Relationships," *North Central Quarterly*, XLII (Winter 1968), 258.

[29] Heim, p. 251.

[30] *Education USA*, April 29, 1968.

[31] Ray A. Howe, "Faculty-Administration *In Extremis*," Junior College Journal, XXXVII (Nov. 1966) 14–15, is a perceptive analysis by a former faculty leader turned administrator.

CONCLUSION

No one reviewing the president-faculty relationship can deceive himself into believing that it offers the president a life of ease or contemplation, of freedom for reflection and research. Today's president has a new role; it is not easy, as I have indicated, but it would be a mistake to think that presidents had an easy time in days gone by. The junior college president of the past experienced conflict with the faculty as does today's president, and many were removed or forced to resign for failure to perform satisfactorily. Today's president is confronted by more militant organizations, which are forcing him to share administrative authority with the faculty or, more frequently, with the leaders of their organizations. In previous decades the turmoil was confined to a campus and the president's antagonists were members of his faculty only loosely affiliated with professional, state and national organizations and rarely with the American Federation of Teachers.

Despite these differences, important and harrowing as they may be, the president succeeded or failed then for the same reasons he succeeds or fails today. The qualities of administrative ability and leadership have not changed significantly, despite the deep insights and rationalizations developed by theorists on administration. These qualities must still be part of a president's assets. Moreover, these qualities must change with new perceptions by the faculty of their role. Was John Gardner thinking of today's president when he wrote of the "self-renewing man who is versatile and adaptive, highly motivated . . . with a willlingness to entertain diverse views . . . with many sources of initiative rather than one"?[33]

The illustrations used in this paper are not intended as a guide for others. They indicate the range of subjects now prominent in president-faculty relations, the extent of faculty participation in decision-making, and the areas still determined or influenced largely by the president. The president may be consoled by the conflict-theorists' thesis that "our first need in the governance of colleges and universities is to understand and accept [conflict] . . . because internal conflict can be as much of an indication of organizational strength and capability as it can be of weakness. We need strong faculties; we need vigorous administration."[34]

Foreboding as they may be, resignations and early retirements, and the reluctance of faculty to assume administrative assignments, confirm the judgment of the president's preeminent position in the college and the high quality of leadership and administrative ability necessary for success in his relationship with the faculty. In this relationship, the president may be compared to a choir leader who has many voices to blend, but whereas the members of the choir are prepared to follow their leader in order to produce a particular effect be it harmonious or dissonant, the president cannot always depend on the dissident faculty members' cooperation.

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[32] *University* [of California] *Bulletin*, XVI (April 22, 1968), 146.

[33] Carnegie Corporation, *Annual Report* (1962), p. 7.

[34] Burton R. Clark, "The Role of Faculty in College Administration," *Guidelines for the Aspiring Professor* (Burlingame, Calif.: South-Western Publishing Company, 1964), p. 40.

I like Sir Eric Ashby's figure of speech that a healthy college "ought to be in a state of unstable equilibrium continually disturbed by force and enthusiasm generated within the faculty, and continually readjusted by the gyroscope of central administration. The power behind the gyroscope is the president. Of course, he does not restore equilibrium all by himself. He is surrounded by committees and advisers; but responsibility for bringing the gyroscope into action rests squarely upon his shoulders. . . ."[35]

Though the lot of the president may be hard and frustrating, the assignment today has more significance for the survival of the junior college than at any time since the establishment of the first junior college. Upon the president more than upon any other single individual in the hierarchy of the educational organization depends the continued health or the slow decline of the junior college. He, as no other individual in the organization, is responsible for creating the environment in which the conflicting forces among the faculty, students, and community, especially as reflected among board members, are reconciled so that the educational program can flourish, instructors can teach, students can learn, and leaders of the future can emerge to lead us out of the situation in which we find ourselves. I believe the faculty recognize this.

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[35] Sir Eric Ashby, "Administrators and Professors," *Higher Education* (Santa Barbara, Calif.: Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, 1966), p. 29.

HERBERT F. STALLWORTH

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT, THE CURRICULUM, AND INSTRUCTION

Because of his experience and his idiosyncrasies of philosophy, intelligence, and capacity for sustained purposeful activity, no college president will execute with excellence all of the functions of an adequately conceived position-description. The position-description itself will vary according to the expectations of particular boards of trustees and of particular presidents. Because the movement to create an experimental junior college educational practice is in its infancy, the functions of this office tend to be a mixture of functional and dysfunctional elements, even where the incumbent has a strong commitment to the improvement of educational practice in his college. Also, there are hazards and conditions in each situation that prevent complete implementation of the president's role concerning curriculum and instruction. Some of the hazards are within him and some are in the situation. Some can be dealt with; some are beyond reach.

What is the role of the president in regard to curriculum and instruction? One way to get an answer is to survey college boards of trustees; another is to survey the presidents of the country and ask them how much time they spend at tasks having to do with curriculum and instruction, what they do specifically in this regard, and on what theory they justify what they do. One may also consult the literature, or one might attempt to invent an answer to the question.

Boards do not generally have important things to say about the subject except in the very broadest sense, and then usually in connection with broad missions such as curricula for the transfer student, the occupational student, or the adult student. Presidents would respond to the best of their ability.

The literature is a somewhat disappointing source; however, there is some useful material on the question. Robert Hutchins says that the highest function of the administrator (president) is to clarify or to discover the mission (aims and ends) of his college.[1] That is to say, what, in large and in detail, is it that the college should value enough to attempt to do and why? I add the "why" because, if the persons in the enterprise, especially faculty members, value the same "why," the better the chances are that the institution will achieve its purposes in curriculum and instruction.

President Stoke of Queens College asserts that the most important qualification a college president can bring to his job is a philosophy of education, and that he needs this to give his institution direction and to serve him every day as a guide for administrative decisions. Stoke notes that a college president without a philosophy of education is a pilot without navigation charts.[2]

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[1] Robert Maynard Hutchins, "The Administrator: Leader or Office Holder," *Journal of Higher Education,* XVI, No. 8 (Nov. 1946), 395–396.

It is Thornton's view that of all the functions of the chief administrative officer, the educational responsibility of the president is the most important and complex.[3] This means that curriculum and instruction, the central educational functions, are seen by Thornton as the most important functions deserving of the serious concern of the president.

Dodds believes that the presidential office will go the way of the buffalo if it loses its character of educational leadership.[4] He states:

> We are fully aware that the dilemma of the modern president is real, that to urge him to make 50 percent of his time free for educational matters will be considered by many a radical proposal. Many a seasoned, conscientious veteran will think it impractical, even visionary. Nor do we underestimate the obstacles to its effectuation. It is, we repeat, truly a bootstrap operation. It can be realized only as the modern president is able to buy time from involvement in those supporting activities which he cannot ignore. He will be helped by a reasonable mastery of the art of administration.[5]

THE ROLE OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT IN CURRICULUM

I agree with Hutchins, Stoke, Dodds, and Thornton that the president must be seriously concerned with and active in the educational efforts of his college. I would like to reflect this concern in some observations on the subject of curriculum and instruction, taking my cue from certain philosophical commitments that persist in our society.

First, I would like to speak about curriculum in three forms: in terms of programs; then in terms of learning objectives; and finally in terms of the personality of the institution itself as a form of curriculum.

Let us dispense with the global notion of curriculum. Degree programs, diploma programs, certificate programs, and organized noncredit work programs and various types of services are curriculum in broad strokes. The president's role at this level is to exert leadership and encouragement so that the needs of the college service area are accurately identified and assessed; to see that program priorities are arrived at in light of probable budgetary resources; to see that such factors as the following are used in deciding priorities; (1) student demand—both probable voluntary and probable generated demand; (2) cost per student of establishing and operating particular programs; (3) employment opportunities and area manpower needs.

It is the president's role to lead in the creative quest for programs—counseling, general education, and occupational programs—for persons not now served to any great extent, e.g., the illiterate, the forgotten, the disinherited, the poor of spirit, the unemployed and the unemployable, and those who are not now really participating in American life.

Before going to another view of curriculum, let us raise some important questions. Suppose your college had only one student. And suppose you had all possible services available, that is, the widest range of diagnostic, curricula, instructional, and evaluative means. How would you go about serving him? What would your college do first?

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[2] Harold W. Stoke, *The American College President* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959), p. 161.

[3] James W. Thornton, Jr., *The Community Junior College*, 2nd. ed. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 130.

[4] Harold W. Dodds, *The Academic President—Educator or Caretaker?* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1962), p. v.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 62.

Wouldn't you want to know, before thinking about curriculum for him, what are his interests and abilities of all kinds; his hopes, his fears; his special responsibilities to his family and others; his economic resources; the degree of his need to personally earn the means of keeping himself and others alive and of defraying his educational costs; how he and his family get along; the conditions of his existence generally? I believe that a president would want to know, to the extent he could find out, these and other things about the student. Then, before moving to fashion a curriculum for him, the president would want to help the student to eliminate as many of the negative forces operating upon him as possible and to have a more accurate assessment of himself by a guided look at the whole picture. For instance, if the student reads at the seventh-grade level, writes at the sixth-grade level, and computes at the twelfth-grade level, shouldn't the president know this and understand the implications?

The theory underlying these questions is simply that the question "Where do we go from here?" is senseless until we know what "here" means. Since college professors, instructional supervisors, and staff personnel are men of good will, wouldn't the president seek agreement among them that effective diagnosis is essential in a defensible junior college practice; that it is appropriate for the president to cause, through leadership and support, a systematic approach to diagnosis which is designed and used to the end that we know what "here" means before we address ourselves to the question of "Where do we go from here?" I am persuaded that we are in the very early days of a movement toward an experimental diagnosis of students. We will, we must do better in regard to diagnosis out of sheer self-defense. The junior colleges of America will, in the years ahead, reach into the nooks and crannies of despair and human waste and add the educational needy to their clientele in numbers not now dreamed of as we make our enrollment projections. We are reaching the end of the trail of an educational practice that is designed principally to serve the strong, but which, in effect, ignores or discourages those who most need the help that a creative and generous junior college can give.

Effective diagnosis is vital to an educational practice based on human growth and development. Junior college presidents now in the early days of their tenure are in a position to influence the quality and scope of diagnosis in their institutions. What a fortunate position to be in!

Let us look at curriculum as learning objectives stated in the form of behavioral competencies— in other words, curriculum as seen at the level of course detail.

Under ideal circumstances, a student enrolled in a course would not have accomplished any of the competencies included in that course before doing the course of work; we would know this from diagnosis. Ideally, an array of competencies would be fashioned to fit the need for growth and the ability to grow of each individual student in each course. What would be the criteria for selecting the learning objectives for a student? Out of counseling and educational advisement based on where the student actually is would come program direction; out of clinical judgment, job descriptions from the market place, open-society general education theory, and the competency requirements of subsequent courses would come the specific objectives of a particular course.

Is there any way to be absolutely certain of the validity of learning objectives selected as the basis of a course of work? No. There is a hazard involved. When intelligence is the method of design and execution of any human acitvity, absolute certainty is not possible. Only when custom, convention, or other forms of authoritarianism are the basis of design and execution of human behavior can there be absolute certainty. Knowing that there can be no absolutely appropriate set of course objectives, it is the responsibility of the president, nevertheless, to lead his colleagues to the commitment to write *in specific behavioral language* the learning objectives of every course. He should help his faculty colleagues to feel secure in the role of experimental designers of learning objectives. A president who would help his faculty move toward curriculum designed in the form of behavioral objectives must make it clear, in regard to the selection of specific behavioral objectives, that (1) the faculty has the right, within broad limits, to be wrong in the selection of course objectives for a particular course, (2) it is the faculty's responsibility to reach out for help and information and to work creatively and aggressively in the process of selecting and designing objectives, and (3) it is the faculty's responsibility to reexamine and reconstruct or abandon selected objectives in light of the evidence that comes from their use and from the honest criticism of them. To illustrate what I mean by a behaviorally expressed objective, let me give an example from the field of typewriting:

> To be able to produce four (4) medium-length letters with a syllabic intensity rate of 1.35 or less, in thirty (30) minutes for the grade of A; letters must be mailable; that is, all errors corrected, carbon copy, and envelope. Three letters for B, two for C, one letter not acceptable.

Finally, let us examine the idea of curriculum which is surely planned for but largely unorganized. In poetic language, curriculum in this sense is the personality of the institution as perceived and lived with by students, staff, and faculty. It is the role of the president here to help the people of the college to think of themselves as a decent human fellowship. What does this mean in operational terms? It means that the relationship among students, faculty members, staff members, board members and the relationships among persons in all of these various categories should be consciously thought of and viewed as mutually supportive relationships, aimed at giving each personality its best chance to flower within the college life. After all, if a college is not a decent human fellowship, it will surely achieve ends that are dysfunctional in the larger effort to build a more humane society. It will be a place to survive rather than a place to enjoy. And all will know it and feel it. The president has the responsibility to take an unequivocal stand against the master-servant relationship and other such tranquil forms of violence throughout the college. He is obliged to take the initiative toward the end that the college be a way of life which conforms as closely as possible to the open-culture model; that is, that the college be a fellowship of intelligent purpose and mutual support. The pompous, cold, pseudo-correct, self-conscious model of the president is not serviceable to this end. Students and faculty are terribly aware of the forced, narrow, restricted, custom-based image of the presidency. The president can go far in promoting humanity in the college by evincing compassion with high expectations, warmth with discipline, concern with responsibility. He can have influence on this part of the real curriculum by seeing that his own behaviors are appropriately chosen for appropriate ends; appropriate, that is, in terms of human growth and development. This means, among other things, that he cannot afford the luxury of hate. He must do without the privilege of listening to one colleague gossip about another, and *vice versa.* He must forego the luxury of dwelling on what is professionally weak or missing in his colleagues to the exclusion of helping them to overcome their frailties. He must look upon all of his senior colleagues—faculty and staff—and upon his junior colleagues—students—as brothers and sisters, to put it simply. This commitment may, under certain circumstances, mean helping a colleague to find a suitable post in some other institution. It may involve changing a colleague's assignment within the college.

If the development of a humane and mutual spirit is to have even a fighting chance in the college, the members of the college community must be consciously committed to it and deliberately protect the commitment, for only those things planned for in human experience tend to come to pass.

These so-called intangible objectives are not intangible at all; they merely elude us and seem intangible when we do not value them enough to plan for them as part of the personality of the institution. They literally are part of the curriculum; the most important, in my judgment.

Let me make a special point about student participation in the governance of the college. The president should promote student participation to the very limits of feasibility. I include here what is usually called the student activity program. But I also mean to include student participation in the larger decision-making processes of the college. To illustrate, I believe students can and should be members of important college committees; should participate in the public relations effort of the institution; and should be included in program evaluation. It is one thing to say that the student is a full participant in the college life; it is another thing to implement the idea.

THE ROLE OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT IN INSTRUCTION

What is the president's role in regard to instruction? What is instruction?

One view, possibly the prevailing view, is that instruction is what the student receives. This definition grows out of a traditional educational practice that consists largely of "telling" or "sending" information to the student. Another view is that instruction is all that the professor does. These notions of instruction, while not universal or exclusive in our educational practice, do enjoy notoriety. They are blessed by custom, and are based, to a great extent, on an anti-human, anti-intelligence view of the persons involved.

Permit me to suggest that instruction is the work the student actually does in order to accomplish the objectives of the curriculum on the one hand, and the work done by professors and others to help the student to achieve the curricular objectives on the other, the roles being viewed in mutual-support relationship. What role can the president have in instruction thus conceived? In order to get at this, let me suggest a model. Let us imagine a college with one student and a curriculum consisting of one behaviorally specified learning objective. Let us use the same objective we mentioned earlier:

> To be able to produce four (4) medium-length letters with a syllabic intensity rating of 1.35 or less, in thirty (30) minutes for the grade of A; letters must be mailable; that

is, all errors corrected, carbon copy, and envelope. Three letters for B, two letters for C, one letter unacceptable.

I will not go into detail of the design of the teaching-learning work necessary to accomplish the objective; rather, let us agree that we *should* design a work program which, with the greatest economy of manpower, materials, machinery and other resources, would be best calculated to help the student to achieve the objective. Permit me only to suggest that the professor, with appropriate participation of the student, would want to ask himself the following questions, among others, as the work design problem is faced:

1. Is the student prepared to work toward this objective? If not, what will it take to get him ready?
2. What are the elements of a work program best calculated to result in the student's accomplishment of the objective?
3. What role should the professor play in the work program?
4. What role should the student play? How will his mind be brought into play?
5. What materials should be in the hands of the student as he works to achieve the objective?
6. What materials should be used by the professor?
7. What spaces are needed to accomplish the purpose? What educational technology should be available to these co-workers?
8. To what extent should the student work independently? In what way should the professor be available to the student while he is working?
9. How can other personnel and other resources be usefully employed by the professor and/or the student in the accomplishment of the objective?
10. Where should the various elements of the work be done?
11. What is the time schedule for completion of the work?
12. What method will be used to measure the student's accomplishment of the objective?
13. What method will be used by the professor to measure the effectiveness of his own work and, if it seems indicated, the validity of the objective itself?

While this general approach requires a great investment of energy, it will also liberate a great amount of intelligence in all concerned. I believe it to be the role of the president to foster the values found within the approach. In summary, I believe it is the president's duty (1) to encourage experimental efforts to improve the design and execution of the roles, procedures, and formats of instruction; (2) to go out of his way to stimulate the need for a greater array of educational tools and services for professors and students; and (3) to go out of his way to see that the professors and students have the useful tools and services they need and are willing to learn to use.

Evaluation of Student Performance

Let me pass now to that most important function of instruction—evaluation of the student's performance and the assigning of grades. I believe, as I peer into the haze of the future through the fog of present custom, that the president has a most important role to play in the matter of evaluation. First, he is obliged, at least in the case of the public, open-door, comprehensive community junior college, to advocate the aggressive recruitment and retention of students of all conditions and descriptions. But he is also responsible for seeing that effective quality control is a part of his college's instructional practice. Certainly no president would want the professor to certify, by giving an acceptable grade, accomplishments that have not occurred. Surely we should never say, by giving an acceptable grade, that a student has demonstrated acceptable performance on the objectives of his work program when he has not done so. The values of aggressive recruitment and retention of a broad range of students, on the one hand, and the value of effective quality control, on the other, would appear to be in conflict. Indeed they are in conflict in conventional educational practice. However, I judge that it is the responsibility of the president to lead his institution in the quest for a system of grading that will meet the following criteria and tend to resolve that conflict:

1. A system that will attract students of all stages of personal and educational development and of all conditions to enroll in the college.
2. A system that will encourage students of all conditions to work with more heart and persistence.
3. A system that will foster instructional responsibility on the part of professors and students.
4. A system that is geared openly and directly to behaviorally specified objectives.
5. A system that will guarantee quality control.

Regarding the first and second criteria, public junior colleges are morally obligated to actively recruit students of all descriptions and conditions. They are obligated to promote the use of college resources and services for the purpose of increasing the quality of our common life. The old A, B, C, D, F scheme is based on an anti-human concept; it is better suited for grading the performance of race-horses. It assures, in the guise of quality control, the washing out or discouraging of a large percentage of those who come to use. It scares off hordes of those we should have with us but who will not come on their own volition. An educational practice that pins the "F" label on individuals who are, for whatever the reasons, already "losers," should somehow seem a sick and strange device to professionals whose practice is theoretically geared to human growth and development considerations.

As for the third criterion we can certainly agree that students should know clearly, in advance, what is expected of them. We should be able to agree that professors should know clearly, in advance, what they expect of students. Such conditions surely could be expected to result in at least the possibility of a more responsible and humane relationship between the professor and the student. Why shouldn't the student know clearly, at any point in time, the objectives of his work in advance? And why shouldn't the professor know clearly, at any point in time, what he is to do and what he expects the student to be able to demonstrate in advance? To those who insist that flying by the seat of the pants is better than knowing what one is about, let me suggest that the more intelligent the planning, the greater the possibility of real romance and adventure in the instructional relationship.

Criterion four must, of necessity, be met. In other words, what we evaluate should be what we set out to do in the first place.

With respect to criterion five, unless and until the student has demonstrated acceptable performance on all of the essential objectives of the course, the college should not certify, by assigning an acceptable grade, that the student has completed the job.

The president should lead his colleagues in the quest for a grading system that will meet these five criteria. That leadership, while firm, should be supportive. Part of that leadership should be his sharing constantly with his colleagues his conviction that it is more noble, more *homo-sapiens*-like, to seek ways to promote the growth and development of all the persons whom we can get to come to us than it is to limit ourselves to rewarding the strong and discouraging the underdeveloped and the already poor of spirit.

In other words, the president should encourage his colleagues in the view that to consciously invent and reconstruct instructional practice is better than to receive—unexamined—an often vicious educational practice that has little more to recommend it than the fact that it is customary.

Experimentation and Innovation in Curriculum and Instruction

Let me refer to the role of the president with relation to experimentalism in the area of curriculum and instruction. We American collegiate educators, as educators, are not scientists and our professional practice is not scientific. Our practice is not scientific, because it is carried and passed on to us in the vessel of custom and convention. We are not adept at experimentation. When we try to behave experimentally, we tend to tinker, without philosophy. It is my thesis that if we are to bring junior college education into the ring of activities whose practice is more securely based on the experimental method, then we must first cultivate the experimental spirit. Until one comes to have affection for and feels secure in the experimental outlook, his intelligence tends to stay chained up, immobilized. The junior college president, if he would encourage the significant development of the experimental spirit in curriculum and instruction, could help his colleagues to establish the following conditions in the college:

1. That the professors are guaranteed the right to fail in their efforts to improve curriculum and instruction.
2. That professors receive approval and recognition for even having the desire to experiment, provided only that foresight and discipline be present in the situation.
3. That cooperative approaches to improvement of instruction within divisions and between divisions are encouraged.
4. That no one is expected to magically create solutions in cuurriculum and instruction that are ultimate, everlasting, and equal to all situations and circumstances.
5. That the design of experimental proposals must be "frozen" and implemented before they are 100 percent foolproof.
6. That one should feel secure when the consequences that flow from activating a proposal illuminate the proposal and show up the unforeseen imperfections that are surely in all proposals.
7. That innovation is valuable and valued.
8. That evaluation of experimental or innovative departures does not have to be foolproof in order for a faculty to move off dead center.

After the appropriate nurturing of the spirit of experimentalism in regard to curriculum and instruction, the president should encourage, by his posture and with necessary resources, a feasible program of experimentation on relatively simple parameters of curriculum and instruction. The fact that a particular experiment has already been done somewhere is irrelevant when the aim is to develop the spirit of experimentalism and some skill in experimenting in the college. Junior college education, if it is to be improved, will have to be improved at the grass roots—because that is where junior college education is occurring. External events can be supportive and catalytic, but only that. We can get clues and suggestions from the practices of others and from the literature, but the grueling work of improving education must be done locally. If improvement is to be done intelligently and significantly, the whole college must be permeated with the spirit of experimentalism.

In the present condition of junior college education, innovation and experimentation—within the very broadest of limits—is good for the individual college, regardless of the level of its sophistication and regardless of the quantity and quality of its impact on the larger junior college educational community.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, let me pose this question: Can a staff and faculty of a junior college achieve the great flowering of experimental spirit and the art of experimentation in its curriculum and instructional work on its own, regardless of the attitudes present in the governing board? I think not. The posture of the board is of great significance in the quality of life and work within the college. In this connection, let me read a policy resolution adopted by one board of trustees early in the life of one junior college; I present it not as the only thing a board can do to stimulate the urge for improvement, but as a very important step:

> WHEREAS, The Board of Trustees of the College adopts the democratic societal model as the basis and guide for the development and operation of the College; and
>
> WHEREAS, Democratic process (the social method of free men) is experimental in its very nature; and
>
> WHEREAS, Institutions of public education in any society should exist primarily to make actual in Society the methods and ends contained in its societal model; and
>
> WHEREAS, The College is an institution of public education; be it therefore
>
> *Resolved,* That the Board of Trustees of the College hereby adopts as policy the view that the College should be, and to the extent possible shall be, experimental in relation to the selection of missions, objectives, courses, and programs; in the design, execution, and evaluation of teaching and learning programs used to implement its objectives, courses, and programs; in the selection and use of the tools, materials, facilities and support programs employed in the teaching and learning process; and in other support activities of the College.

LOUIS C. RIESS

THE FACULTY AND THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT

The junior college faculty interacts with the president in many ways—intellectually, professionally, and socially—both formally and informally. Today, however, the most critical area of relationship is that which involves institutional governance. Traditionally the role of the faculty has been one of advisement, as is implied in the often used phrase "faculty participation in the governance of the college." It is my thesis that the evolving relationship of the faculty and the president must be a partnership. This view recognizes the faculty as a part of institutional government and implies a formal organizational structure operating on the basis of shared responsibility.

THE TRADITIONAL POLICY-MAKING PROCESS

Rapid growth, plus the necessity of solving new and unique educational problems, places a great strain upon the governance of the junior college. This is compounded by the fact that the junior college has so largely evolved as an extension of the secondary schools. Historically, administrators and faculty were recruited from high schools; therefore, the organizational structure, philosophy, and method of operation of the junior college have typically aped those of our public schools.

Under these circumstances, the president, through his administrative staff, often rules as the benevolent autocrat of a generally conservative institution. Faculties form pseudo-democratic structures which give the external appearance of participation in government; in fact, however, they fall far short of real participation in policy development. Although the faculty is usually consulted in the areas of planning, building, budgeting, and personnel selection, its involvement is more peripheral than total. The faculty plays a larger role in curriculum and instruction. This involvment still seems to fall short of a desirable degree of participation. It should be noted that this lack of the faculty assumption of full-shared responsibility in these areas seems to be one of self-restraint, rather than administrative constraint.

The board traditionally limits itself and usually accepts the policies suggested by the president or superintendent. There is very little communication directly between the faculty and board, or between administration, faculty, and the board. As a result, an administrative pipeline is created which funnels all communication along a one-way street through the superintendent to the board, and has a tendency to be overrestrictive. Typically, the superintendent sees the faculty in the role of consultant or advisor, rather than as a full participant in the decision-making process.

Since administrative appointments are often accompanied by unofficial tenure, many junior college administrators who are ill-suited to perform their assigned tasks are perpetuated in positions which could well be delegated to others. The lack of sufficiently qualified administrators, archaic operating structures inherited from secondary schools, poorly defined procedures and lines of communication are serious obstacles to faculty participation in junior college governance.

Even when the administration is willing to assign major responsibility to a faculty, it frequently has difficulty in drawing the staff into a meaningful relationship. Faculties often, it seems, go so far as actively to resist accepting the necessary responsibility that goes with full participation in institutional government.[1] Teachers have long continued voiceless outside the classroom because administrations have centralized control and often govern by mimeograph. This has decreased the opportunity for teachers to participate in policy-making, leading to obstacles which block grievances from being heard.

There is clearly a need for definition of responsibilities among personnel at the various levels of the educational hierarchy. The traditional organizational structure has become ill-adapted to meet public interests and the public has failed to respond to the simple argument that "nothing is wrong that money can't cure."[2]

In 1967, Dean Marion Brandley of San Joaquin Delta College sent a questionnaire to all California junior college presidents concerning the place of the faculty senate in policy development. Responses from sixty-eight presidents reveal varied practices and attitudes—and, upon occasion, emotions.

When asked whether the faculty senate president sits with the board of trustees, two college presidents responded by saying: "God no!, Board and Superintendent only! This is a crazy symbol. The Senate only is an advisory body." And, "Hell no! The Faculty Senate president sits in the audience. He represents less than any one taxpayer in the district."

In response to the question "Do faculty senates make recommendations directly to the Board?" Fourteen presidents responded yes, forty-eight no, and six did not reply. One president responded: "They (the senate) should fold up their tent and steal away (get back to teaching)."

When asked if the faculty senate president or officers were given released time, thirty-nine presidents responded by saying they questioned, opposed, resented, resisted, or refused to provide released time. One president stated that anything the senate studied was not an administration request, but was done only for the gratification of the faculty.[3]

In a different survey, reported by Priest, another junior college president states that the personality trait which has as much to do with conflict as any other factor is the lip service many administrators give to the dignity of the individual. Too many administrators talk about their respect for the faculty, but their actions and attitudes do not follow what they say. He believes that the personal security of some administrators is wanting. When their ideas, procedures, and practices are challenged, all hell may, and frequently does, break loose.[4]

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[1] Louis C. Reiss, "California Junior College Governance, A Time for Change," (paper presented at the California Conference of the American Association of University Professors, Stanford University, California, April 1967), pp. 1–5.

[2] George W. Taylor, "The Public Interest in Collective Negotiations in Education," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XLVIII, No. 1 (Sept. 1966), 16–17.

[3] Marion K. Brandley, "Relationships of Faculty Senates (Councils) to the Administrative Staff, Presidents and/or Superintendents, and Board of Trustees in Sixty-Eight California Junior Colleges as Reported by the Presidents and Vice-Presidents" (Los Angeles: ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, University of California, ERIC Accession Number EDO 13640, Central Clearinghouse Accession Number JC 670 877), pp. 10–16.

In a May address to Los Angeles Junior College Administrators, Lombardi said, "We must expect greater faculty militancy resulting in greater sharing of decision making. The benevolent despot, if he ever existed in the Los Angeles system of colleges, is extinct."[5]

In 1964, Priest indicated junior college board members make policy; administrators administer; and teachers teach. This statement was true half a dozen years ago, but today militant forces are at work to bring about a full-scale review of this allocation of function.[6]

Lombardi reflects that some administrators look back with nostalgia to the formerly harmonious relationships between faculty and administration.[7] This relationship may have existed in some institutions, while in others, it was only a surface reflection. The organization of the California Junior College Faculty Association in 1958 should have been a warning, but this action was considered a breach of faith or trust by administrators. Today, administrators are no longer trying to determine whether faculties should participate in administration. Rather, they are busy determining how to adjust to such participation.

In the early 1960's, the faculty at Stockton Junior College in California studied the feasibility of involving the faculty in policy making, and as a result, the Council of the Teaching Faculty was formed. Although primitive by today's standards, and functioning only as an extension of the traditional faculty role of advisement and consultation, it was a beginning that later was to evolve into more sophisticated structures on other junior college campuses.[8]

THE CURRENT SCENE

Taylor brings faculty-administration relationships up to date when he states:

> Ours is a meeting-of-minds society grounded upon the conviction that, after a negotiating confrontation, opposing interests can and will be accommodated by agreement. The future of our way of life is largely dependent, I believe, upon the institutional forms which are created to channel conflict, to make a confrontation of opposing interests possible, and to facilitate the reconciliation of those interests by agreement. In these terms, the current demands by public school teachers for more effective participation is in the established American tradition. There needs to be a better understanding all around about the many conflicts of interests, long existent, but now sharply highlighted, which have to be channeled and reconciled in the operation of our school system.[9]

John Dunn, superintendent of the Peralta Junior College District, brought faculty-administration relations into the space age with the development of the Peralta College Council, which includes the president of each college in the district, the assistant superintendent for business, the director of educational services, and the president and vice-president of each academic senate. The council is chaired by the district superintendent and serves as the policy-recommendations body to the board of trustees on *all issues* effecting the educational program. A similar council exists at each college to provide for joint faculty administration solutions to individual campus problems.

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[4] Bill J. Priest, "Faculty-Administrators Relations," *Junior College Journal*, XXXIV, No. 6 (Mar. 1964), 7.

[5] John Lombardi, "An Address to the Los Angeles Association of Junior College Administrators" (Los Angeles, Calif.: May 1968, mimeo.), p. 4.

[6] Priest, p. 4.

[7] John Lombardi, "Faculty in the Administrative Process," *Junior College Journal*, XXXVII, No. 3 (Nov. 1966), 9.

[8] Alexander Vavoulis, "A Faculty Role in Academic Policy-Making," *Junior College Journal*, XXXIV, No. 7 (Apr. 1964), 33–34.

[9] Taylor, p. 22.

The faculty and administration have developed three annual budgets, which were presented to the board with joint recommendations. On the other hand, twice during the past two years, the board has had to arbitrate differences between the faculty and administration. In one case, the board ruled with the administration, and, in the other case, with the faculty. In both cases, the board decision was accepted by all concerned.[10]

An examination of the statements made by the leaders who developed the Peralta system of shared responsibility sheds further light on this successful experiment in joint faculty-administration development of policy. Superintendent Dunn notes that the role of the college president is changing. He is no longer the head of a monolithic organization responsible only to the board of trustees. He must accept the democratic principle that those affected by policy have a right to participate in the development of that policy. For their part, the faculties in the Peralta District have stated that they not only have a right in policy-making but also an obligation.[11] Faculty opinion is not merely allowed, but actively solicited. This leads to a voluntary contribution of ideas and makes failure to contribute the worst possible irritant to operations. The faculty is proud of its achievements and assumes that it will be more creative in the future.[12]

If the faculty is to make its full contribution to joint faculty-administration policy development, it must have the time and facilities to perform that function. It is interesting to note that the Peralta District was the only one out of sixty-eight California junior college districts responding to a recent poll on senate-administration relations that allowed adequate released time for the senate personnel.[13]

There are some parameters for guidance in developing an effective form of government. Representation does not consist solely in serving as a conduit for sentiment already in existence among members of a group. Antecedent to the expression of group views is the process of developing those views. Institutional government should engage in extensive study and discussion in reaching decisions. By this process differences are ironed out and then the faculty and the administration can approach the board and public with a united front. Reconciliations of different interests groups facilitates the work of the board by reducing the number of conflicts.[14]

Lombardi feels that the board, faculty, and administration must face being thrust into processes, both external and internal, for which they are not prepared. Negativism and rigidity in the face of the evolving faculty-administration relationships is indefensible.[15]

It appears that the faculty must participate in two formal structures: one, an organization in which it can resolve its own internal conflict; two, institutional government, where it can join with administration in policy development.

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[10] John W. Dunn, Peter Jowise, and Ralph Jentile, "Our Faculty Participates in Policy Development," *Junior College Journal*, XXXVII, No. 4 (Dec. 1966–Jan. 1967), 10–11.

[11] Ibid., p. 10.

[12] Ibid., p. 13.

[13] Brandley, p. 15.

[14] V. O. Key, *Politics, Parties, and Pressure Groups* (New York: Crowell Co. 1964), p. 143.

[15] Lombardi, "Faculty in the Administrative Process," p. 14.

Honer suggests that the currently authorized academic senates present an exceptional opportunity to develop power patterns, which will achieve some of the cooperative educational goals so often proposed but seldom achieved.[16]

The following concepts relating to the academic senate were presented by the American Association for Higher Education:

> First, we assert that systematic procedures for faculty representation are essential to maintain or improve the quality of higher education in the United States. Secondly, we believe that this objective can best be achieved by shared authority through an active internal organization, preferably an academic senate. The senate can most effectively give expression and effect to the professional values and competence of the faculty. It can provide a forum for the resolution of a wide range of issues involving the mission and operation of the institutions.[17]

Lombardi suggests that faculties look toward their university counterparts for guidance. Before the academic senates were legislated, many junior college faculties had strong faculty associations, and the transition from faculty associations to academic senates would not be difficult.[18]

If senates are to be the local voice of the faculty, they must resolve the current conflict imposed upon the internal operations of the institutions by the large professional educational organizations. This has been done at Pasadena City College, where the faculty by choice and with board approval designated the senate as the appropriate channel of communication to the board for all faculty groups.

Having resolved that the senate shall speak for the faculty, in what areas should the faculty involve itself? The American Association for Higher Education feels that the concept of shared authority will not work unless the faculty can alter the basic decisions that effect its institutional role; therefore, no limits should be placed on the senate's deliberations.[19] Although this is a fluid situation, the literature offers some guidance. Brandley's survey involving the relationships of faculty senate to administration in sixty-eight California Junior College Districts, developed the following administrative viewpoint. Administrators felt that faculty senate activities should be ranked:

a) Improvement of institutional policy;
b) Faculty salaries and personnel matters;
c) Class size and teacher load;
d) Academic freedom and controversial issues;
e) Articulations and transfer programs;
f) Vocational education programs.[20]

It is interesting to compare this list of faculty interests as perceived by chief administrators with the following list, prepared by a faculty member. Wilburn identifies the following as areas of strong faculty interest:

1. Curriculum and instruction;

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[16] Stanley M. Honer, "Faculty Power and Participation," *Junior College Journal*, XXXVI No. 5 (Feb. 1966), 32.

[17] *Faculty Participation in Academic Governance*, Report of the AAHE Task Force on Faculty Representation and Academic Negotiations, Campus Governance Program (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Higher Education, 1967), pp. 56–57.

[18] Lombardi, "Faculty in the Administrative Process," p. 10.

[19] *Faculty Participation*, pp. 57–59.

[20] Brandley, pp. 6–10.

2. Standards of scholarship admission;
3. Faculty recruitment, retention, evaluation and advancement;
4. Selection of the president and deans;
5. Development of an operational, formal structure through which the faculty can participate in the development of policy.[21]

Honer suggests that the faculty must be creative, resilient, intellectually viable, and imaginative. To make effective use of its power, it should select its issues carefully, not involving itself in housekeeping and social activities or petty personal grievances. The faculty must avoid having some other group select the problems it is to consider, and it must retain the capacity to initiate and the responsibility to select.[22]

A look at the Academic Senate of the University of California reveals proposed interesting dimensions of responsibility. The Regents delegate certain authority to the Senate without limitation. In other areas, however, Senate power is limited. This results in what are designated as areas of faculty control and areas of faculty influence.[23]

Junior college governmental organization is still the traditional line-staff hierarchy structure, with the president at the top and the faculty at the bottom acting only in an advisory or consulting role.

If the faculty is effectively to assume responsibility, its functions must be defined and provision must be made for a formal policy-recommendations body. Lahti supports this position when he suggests the board should receive advice and counsel from appropriate constituent groups within the college. Faculty and administration should not be separated in the policy formation process. Both groups should meet jointly while policy formation is under consideration and should do so in a formal organization.[24]

To provide for this integration, I would propose that consideration be given to dividing the organization into an instructional division and an administrative division. The instructional division would include the dean of the faculty, division heads, department chairmen, faculty, and any allied instructional-resources personnel. The administrative division would include student personnel services, community services and business services. The instructional division would be entirely separate from the administration division with both being responsible to the president. This would, in effect, create a faculty-oriented administrative structure directly responsible to the faculty with presidential approval. All administrators in the instructional division would be nominated by the academic senate with approval of the president. All appointments would be for a fixed period of time with provisions for reappointment. The senate would determine the amount of additional compensation and release time for all personnel performing administrative functions in this division.

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[21] York Wilburn, "Faculty Relations with Administration and Staff" (Los Angeles: ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, University of California, ERIC Accession No. JC 670 749), pp. 21–22.

[22] Honer, p. 31.

[23] Lynn Eley, "The University of California at Berkeley: Faculty Participation in the Government of the University," *AAUP Bulletin*, L, No. 1, (Mar. 1964), 10.

[24] Robert E. Lahti, "A Faculty Role in Policy Formation," *Junior College Journal*, XXXVII, No. 1 (Sept. 1966), 12.

The instructional division would be represented in the college policy body by the academic senate and have the following primary areas of responsibility delegated to it by the board:

1. Educational policy and curriculum.
2. Degree requirements and scholastic standards.
3. Selection, retention, advancement, and dismissal of faculty.
4. Academic freedom and faculty-administration grievances.

The instructional division would be involved on a shared basis in:

1. Development of the budget.
2. Student admissions and retention standards.
3. Appointment of all noninstructional administrative personnel, including the office of president.
4. Rules governing student behavior.
5. Faculty compensation, class size, teaching load, and certificated personnel procedures.
6. Long-range planning and campus development.

The administrative division should develop a corresponding organization presided over by the president. Most colleges now have an administrative or president's council which currently performs this function.

This division of labor is similar to that found in many four-year institutions of higher education. The proposed organizational division would not be too traumatic in terms of current institutional structure, but it would probably result in some acute losses of status. The proposal merely suggests that the dean of instruction and related staff be separated from the current administrative structure and placed under the direct supervision and control of the faculty through its senate. This relationship would naturally call for a restructuring of the college policy-recommending body. This body could be called the College Council, presided over by the president and staffed with equal membership from both the administrative and instructional divisions. This group would control appointments to all college-wide committees. Each respective division would control its own committee structure. The primary function of this council would be to develop and present to the board recommendations from institutional policy. The College Council would be similar to a structure that is now part of the Peralta District in Oakland, California. The major differences in the College Council and the structure used in the Peralta District would be the delegation of authority by the board directly to the faculty and the development of a parallel faculty administrative structure.

SUMMARY

Argyris points out that organizations must unfreeze in order to grow and improve.[25] Flexibility, endurance, and a high degree of cohesiveness would be required to cope with the confusion, tension, and pain which accompanies organizational change. Cohesiveness doesn't mean that people have to like each other; it is based on shared responsibility. The process should enable the organization to solve its problems through internal commitment and competent leadership. Conflict widely exists today between faculty and administration orientations. This suggests symbiosis, since neither group is capable of operating the institution alone, whereas together they can successfully achieve the institutional goals.

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[25] Chris Argyris, "A New Era in Personnel Relations," *Dunn's Review and Modern Industry* (June 1962).

I suggest that presidents concerned with the integration of the faculty into the governing structure of the college keep the following points in mind:

1. It is essential that the institution realize and accept interdependence among the board, administration, faculty, and students. The institutional leadership must recognize the reluctance and administrative inexperience of the faculty and actively work to overcome these handicaps.
2. The college should develop a formal governmental structure which clearly defines the function of each component of the institution. It should establish a strong academic senate and integrate it into the college's policy-development process.
3. The college should provide the senate with adequate office space, equipment, clerical help, and released time for its officers so that they can fully participate in the process of college governance.[26]

Change is coming. It will come with either unnecessary strife and difficulty or with the normal pains of birth. The amount of time and degree of trauma required jointly rests with junior college boards of trustees, presidents, and faculties, individually and collectively.

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[26] Riess, p. 6.

EDWARD SIMONSEN

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT AND THE STUDENT

THE CHANGING RELATIONSHIP WITH STUDENTS

Just as everything else is changing at an accelerating rate, so are our relationships with students. Think of the ways in which the college president works with various other groups. Consider, for example, the changes that have occurred in the past ten years in our relationships with the faculty, the community, the legislature, the boards, the news media. Is there any reason why our relationships with students, and the actions of students themselves, shouldn't also change?

In considering these changes in our students, I note a distinct parallel with the Civil Rights Movement. As in the case of civil rights, there has been lip service: we all believe in the rights of the individual and we talk a good game, yet we hesitate to change anything. We don't seem to be ready to move. So the initiative has, in many cases, been taken from us. And yet, most of us view with alarm what students are doing when we should be viewing with alarm what *we have not done.* However, when colleges decide to give the students some say in that which concerns them most, the cry goes up from members of the public, the legislature, and others that students should be seen and not heard.

Students As a Resource

Last spring at the American Association of Junior Colleges meeting, the subject "What the Hell Good Are Students Anyway?" was discussed. A thoughtful paper on this subject was presented by Philip Werdell, formerly with the national Student Association and most recently on a special assignment with the American Council on Education. I want to report some of his recommendations, but first let me tell you of an incident that occurred during the session which highlights part of the problem we have in relationships with students.

The young man had given a number of concrete suggestions on how students could be helpful. The reaction on the part of presidents, superintendents, board members, and student personnel workers was excellent. His thesis was that students are a great resource in the operation of a college—use them. A middle-aged gentleman stormed up the aisle, grabbed the microphone, stared at Mr. Werdell, and said something like this: "I have listened patiently for thirty minutes to your tirade on student involvement and students running the college. Until a minute ago, young man, you had said everything about freedom, involvement, and not one word about student responsibility. When you are ready as students to accept responsibility and to prove without question that you know what it means and that you can provide guarantees that you will not misuse it, then and only then will we as members of governing boards, give you the privileges you so arrogantly request." With that, he stormed out of the room.

Everyone in the audience and on the panel was embarrassed, and turned to Mr. Werdell for a response. He didn't attack the now absent board member, but commented something to the effect that what he was talking about represented a departure from traditional relationships with students and that many people would be insecure with the approach. "Some," he said, "will even become violent!"

Just what did Werdell propose that brought such a response from one of the distinguished delegates? Here are a few of his thought:

> My thesis is that college administrators should think of student participation in educational policy formation in much the same way that the federal government thinks of intellectuals participating in policy formation (e.g., the Rand Corporation and other "think tanks") or as big businesses think of scientists participating in policy formation (e.g., the research and development divisions of most major corporations): in short, student participation in educational policy formation is a long-range investment in more efficient and higher-quality education, and should be undertaken on a grand scale not with the expectation of reaping immediate gains but rather with an eye to long-range institutional self-renewal and growth. . . .
>
> *Students give you more for less:* Most students are eager and willing to work as volunteers. . . . The most committed students, who are often the best for the job, will often work on near subsistence if offered relevant tasks. . . .
>
> Because students see each other as peers, one student is more likely to be able to enlist other students in a voluntary discussion, program, or experiment. Most important, students can undertake educational experiments at no cost to the institution and at great benefit to themselves. New ideas which might be debated endlessly in administrative or departmental committees to free some marginal funds or time can be initiated by students almost as soon as they are conceived and desired by other students. If the experiment is a failure, there is no loss to the institution and [there are] often great lessons to be learned by the students involved. If the experiment is successful, there is a detailed basis for consideration of how it might be incorporated into the institution as a whole. . . .
>
> *Students offer the most candid and immediately relevant appraisals of the quality of education:* Students seldom have the expertise in subject matter that faculty members have, but students have consistently been shown to be the best judges of whether or not students are learning the subject matter. . . .
>
> . . . *if* a climate of openness and trust is fostered and *if* effective channels are open to students, they can ask critically important questions of relevance and priorities. Students cannot always solve the problems that they raise by themselves, but that is why they are students. If colleges and universities do not address themselves to the felt needs and problems of their students, they are fooling themselves as well as their students. Without candor about the relevance of curricular and extracurricular programs, efforts to promote intellectual and personal development are quite significantly missing the mark. Students can not only supply candor, but also their share of substantive critiques and ideas. . . .
>
> *Students themselves account for the vast majority of learning of other students:* The fact that most learning in colleges and universities is "peer group learning" is well documented in the literature of higher education but seldom considered in the formation of educational policy. Besides sharing among themselves a great deal of information and besides engaging each other in frequent dialogue, students set the norms, expectations, and values (often implicitly) for learning in the classroom and without. Faculty can set the norms for teaching and even for testing, but students—repeat, students—set the norms for learning.

Werdell's was a plea for the students, faculty, and administration to see the advantages of wider student participation in all phases of the college program. He also urged junior colleges to encourage the development of "experimental colleges."

The Student Movement and Civil Rights

It is my opinion that the problems of civil rights are serious today because they have existed unattended too long. Abuses have been heaped upon abuses. Students have been treated more humanely but with the same paternalism that is so repugnant to minority groups. When we've given students privileges to run their own affairs, it has too often been of the type that Franklin Murphy refers to as "playing in the sandbox."

Only recently have students been brought into any decision making on campuses. Some colleges are attempting to correct the situation, but in most cases I am afraid it is strictly what might be called tokenism. I frankly will admit that in Bakersfield we have been slow to open our communities to students; however, when we finally got around to pressing the idea, there *was* cautious acceptance.

Administrations have been slow to encourage student involvement, but when they *have* taken the lead, too often the conservative souls—in fact, the reactionary ones—have been members of the faculty who don't want "students poking around where they don't belong."

THE ISSUES

Many of the things that deeply concern students these days are issues that are basic to society itself. The primary ones, of course, are Vietnam, Selective Service, and civil rights.

Much of the impetus for specific action on a campus comes from outside, from other campuses and, of course, from national student organizations. Some of our students receive, through the mail and in talking with other students, regular reports on what action is being proposed by such groups as the Students for a Democratic Society, the Black Panthers, and the Student Non-Violent Coordinating Committee. Furthermore, the news media give virtually instantaneous reports on what happens on any campus in the country—and the reports are not always accurate.

Ethnic Balance

While most of the issues have to do with general problems in society, students occasionally become concerned about an issue close to home, such as ethnic balance in the student bodies, ethnic balance on the faculty, ethnic balance in the classified staff.

How do *we* stand on this issue?

With open-door policies, the junior colleges are likely to fare better in this area than the other segments of higher education, public or private. In fact, the record of community colleges in California is remarkable. Have you seen the article and chart in the May 1968 issue of *The California Professor* which shows the number of white students, black students, and students other than white or black to be found in each of the institutions of higher education in California? Did any of you total what the breakdown was in each of the segments of public higher education? I did, and I found the results shown in Table I.

The junior colleges, with only about two and one-half times as many white students as the state colleges, have eight times as many black students as the state colleges and four and one-half times as many others (primarily Mexican-American

TABLE I

ETHNIC BALANCE IN CALIFORNIA COLLEGES

Kind of Institution	White	Negro	Other
1. University	59,265	987	4,784
2. State Colleges	129,203	2,776	8,790
3. Junior Colleges	327,670	22,606	38,006

Source: The California Professor, May 1968.

and Oriental) as the state colleges. The junior colleges have five times as many whites as the university, twenty-two times as many blacks as the university, and seven times as many others as the university. Or, considering all of public higher education, with just under twice as many white students, we have five times as many blacks and three times as many others.[1]

As a segment, we look good. As individual colleges, however, many of us have little to brag about. There are a number of colleges in the state which are, for all practical purposes, "lily white." In most cases, this situation is merely a reflection of the community itself. Rather than dismiss this problem as being out of the realm of the college, perhaps by cooperating with responsible community groups some projects could be developed. It is not my purpose to identify those who have done a commendable job and those who have done nothing—I would only suggest that if you find that you are not getting a reasonable number of minority students, you should find out why. If you already know why, use your ingenuity to have the community college be the catalyst for doing something that should have been done a long time ago by society itself. The Upward Bound program and programs of this type impress me as means for any college to show its willingness to experiment in the area of equal opportunity.

As far as racial balance in the faculty is concerned, with few exceptions we look bad. This is a difficult problem because we've started rather late in our efforts, and qualified applicants are difficult to find. We have not given notice to our young black people that they really are wanted in teaching, in counseling, in library work, and in administration. I think they are getting the idea, but it's going to be an uphill battle that may take several years. The junior college can take the lead in identifying talented young students from all minority groups, but particularly from among the black students, and help them, encourage them, and even urge them to enter these desirable fields.

In the classified area our record is pretty sad. I have not found an administrator yet who wouldn't say he is an equal-opportunity employer. We say smugly, "Everybody is treated the same, but we just don't get the qualified applicants from the minority groups." An actual head count on most campuses I've visited shows a small number of minority employees among the secretaries, the custodians, and food-service workers. There is no discrimination, perhaps, particularly on the part of the president or dean, but how are things at the level of the initial screening and hiring? What kind of welcome do minority applicants receive at *your* college?

The other day, this subject came up in a discussion among opinion leaders, several of them large employers in one of our California communities. One equal-opportunity employer confessed that he had stumbled on a situation in one of his offices where the application forms of black applicants were routinely filed in the wastepaper basket. Needless to say, the guilty party was summarily fired, but it's hard to know how much damage was done before this situation was discovered. This is an area which we can't afford to leave to chance. Frequent reminders to our assistants in all areas, along with an on-the-spot follow-up to convince them that we mean business when we say we are "equal-opportunity employers," will usually have a positive effect.

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[1] "Survey Results—Minority Students in California," *The California Professor* (May 1968).

Other Areas of Student Concern

Although certain issues are general and may become causes for students to rally around, many issues are of direct concern for them in the pursuit of education, for instance, registration, the classroom, and student affairs. I'd like to say a little about each of these.

1. *Registration:* How humane is your system? Do students get the runaround? Is registration a madhouse? Are there long lines? Has the whole process been analyzed in terms of new methods now available to us, or are we still as archaic as the senior institutions are in getting students into college and into classes?
2. *The Classroom:* Is there an atmosphere of fear, or does good instruction take place? Is evaluation reasonable? Are we really student centered? Are our professors really devoted teachers?
3. *Student Affairs:* Do students have a say in the operation of the student program? Are reasonable procedures developed to insure good student publications? Is there a reasonable policy on Time, Place, and Manner that has been developed by faculty, students and administration and approved by the board? Are students represented on the key institutional committees?

I feel it is our responsibility, in working with students, to be sure that our procedures and our attitudes are proper. If you have not already done so, may I suggest that you work with your students on an appropriate adaptation for your college of the Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students developed by representatives of the Association of American Colleges, the National Student Association, the American Association of University Professors, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, and the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors. The November 1967 issue of the *Junior College Journal* deals with this subject.[2]

SOME SPECIFICS REGARDING PRESIDENT-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

I feel that the specific relationship of a president with his students should depend a great deal upon such factors as the size of the school, size of the staff in student personnel services, and the personalities involved. Not the least of these is the personality of the president himself. I don't think anyone can say, "*This* is the way it ought to be." What will work for one president will not necessarily work for another. However, I would recommend a few guidelines which I feel are useful in most situations:

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[2] Jane E. Matson, "Statement on Student Rights," *Junior College Journal*, XXXVIII (Nov. 1967), 38–42.

1. Official contacts with representative students should be in the presence or at least with the knowledge of the responsible student personnel worker.
2. No decisions regarding students should be made by the president without consultation with the responsible student personnel officer.
3. In the event of a riot, demonstration, or other crisis, the president should stay out of it—make no pronouncement to the press until or unless his subordinates request his assistance or concur with his position. In exchange, the dean is obliged to keep the president posted on what's happening.
4. Don't panic. Don't be forced into an action or statement that you'll be sorry you said when the smoke of battle clears.

Most of us would be better advised to confine our direct activities with students to conferences, banquets, convocations, other ceremonial affairs, meetings with groups of students, and occasionally the individual student. And, if we are still able, I can't see anything wrong with showing our prowess and good will by playing in the faculty-student basketball game or the faculty-student water polo match. From the latter there are no victors—only survivors.

Some Reasons for Poor President-Student Relationships

During the past several years, the expression "You can't trust anyone over thirty" has gained general acceptance among college students. Why?

1. We don't listen too well.
2. We're too easily shocked.
3. We don't give the young any credit for knowing anything.
4. We preach too much.
5. We scold.
6. We cut—we're sarcastic.
7. We act superior—and some of us are pompous.

We simply have to change! But we have to be sincere in our changing. Students *do* trust some people over thirty. Why? Perhaps an analysis of those who have proven they do relate to the young will tell us something. How is rapport established? And by whom? While some of us can rise to the occasion, most of us cannot, and we might as well not worry about it. The worst thing we can do is to try too hard. All of us, however, can:

1. Learn to listen.
2. Refuse to be shocked.
3. Accept the thought that young people have something to offer.
4. Avoid preaching and scolding.
5. Avoid sarcasm.
6. Show some humility.

In addition, we should be sure that we have working closely with students at least one person with whom they feel comfortable and to whom they feel they can go with confidence.

Student Unrest and Militancy

I've said very little so far about student unrest and militancy. President Glenn Gooder of Los Angeles City College put it quite well when he said, in a recent letter to me, that student unrest and militancy are the result of three converging forces:

> The first "force" [he wrote] is that of the drive for redress of legitimate grievances against the educational establishment. We have not always been relevant and responsive. We have not always been consistent, and we have not always encouraged student participation even in those areas where their views are pertinent. When student grievances are legitimate and when their suggestions are appropriate, we should be responsive.
>
> The second "force" is the thrust of disenfranchised minorities for pride and opportunity and, in many cases, for political power. It is more difficult to deal with this force because some of the complaints or "demands" are legitimate and the proposed action would be constructive while many "demands" are not legitimate and, if granted, would be destructive. Here, we should respond where the result will lead to greater pride and dignity and opportunity too long denied many minorities. We should resist where the result will be destructive of the rights of others or, as in some cases, the results will not be in the best interest of the minorities.
>
> The third "force" is the nihilistic force of the "New Left." In my judgment there is little integrity in most of this. There is no desire to work through rational means to achieve improvement. The plan is to bring the educational establishment to a halt as a forerunner of the effort to bring down our total structure. The best response to this force is to appeal to those students who will react to reason in an attempt to keep the hard core from growing. The only other response, it seems to me, is some form of counterforce and, unfortunately, this is what the "new left" want, because out of the resulting turmoil they achieve their goal of destruction.

No formula on how a college president is to deal with each situation is available. In a sense, battlefield conditions can develop at any time, and sound preparations are needed. The best preparation, it seems to me, is to do everything possible to avoid unwise actions, policies, and conditions. In certain cases, the chickens have come home to roost. If your college becomes a target and the grievances are merely an excuse, then the confrontation probably can't be avoided, because some people will see that it does happen. As a field general, how well you use your lieutenants and your platoon leaders and how sound your preparations have been will determine how many casualties you will have.

Some Examples of Student Unrest and Thinking

I know you are all reading the newspapers and magazines regularly on the broad subject of student unrest and student thinking, but I would like to refer briefly to a few documents that may not have come to your attention.

"Students and Society," a report on a conference held at the Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions last fall, gives a rather remarkable overview of student opinion, including the views of articulate spokesmen of the "New Left." The frankness, and in some cases the audacity, of some of their positions will surprise if not shock you. Equally interesting are the responses of the so-called senior fellows at the Center. They had their hands full and some of the dialogue became animated and, in some cases, abrasive. While considerable restraint was shown on both sides, I got the distinct feeling that even though the senior fellows are among the great minds, the junior fellows and other students in attendance were not overawed. At certain stages of the discussion, the generation gap was most obvious.[3]

The American Council on Education has taken leadership in developing documents that should be read by all presidents, including: "The University and Due Process," by James Perkins, president of Cornell University,[4] and *Whose Goals for American Higher Education?* which was edited by Charles G. Dobbins and Calvin B. T. Lee, and to which more than thirty authors contributed, including one distinguished junior college president, Joseph Cosand of St. Louis.[5] And, of course, you should not miss the regular ACE newsletters, which give reports on what is happening. The Commission on Administrative Affairs, with John Caffrey, and the Commission on Academic Affairs, with Joseph Shoben, are providing an excellent service in keeping us current. Another ACE activity is a conference this summer at the University of Denver Law School on "Legal Aspects of Student-Institution Relationships." The proceedings, which ACE will publish, should be helpful.

Let me refer to a statement which some of you may have seen. It was in an article by Robert Hessen, entitled "Campus or Battleground? Columbia Is a Warning to All American Universities," which appeared in *Barron's* recently. Hessen looks at the background of the Columbia problem as an instructor in the Graduate School of Business. He describes what happened and he tells specifically the tactical errors made by the administration. He also minces no words in describing the actions, aims, and motives of the protestors and rioters. Hessen closes his article by saying:

> The Columbia crisis vitally affects the life of every American. No one's life or property can be secure in a society which tolerates the use of force by any group to achieve its goals. And no one will be safe as long as college and civil authorities persist in their policy of answering aggression with appeasement. . . .
>
> Men need to live by the guidance of rational principles and to resolve their disagreements peacefully. It is both immoral and impractical to abandon principles in a time of crisis, and then hope to survive on the basis of pragmatic expediency and cowardly compromise. Each time that a violation of individual rights is tolerated, it serves as an invitation for future violations. A free society cannot survive unless men of reason rally to its defense.[6]

CONCLUSION

President-student relations should be among our most important priorities. In order to cope with these unusual problems and take advantage of these unique opportunities, it is incumbent upon us to take our assignments seriously. An effective student relationship along with our concern for our improved relations with the faculty, the board, and the community must be our constant goal.

Students deserve a better break from our colleges than they have received or are receiving at present. To avoid the turmoil that has occurred too often in recent years and months requires a continuing program. We should not wait for a crisis before we attempt to establish reasonable procedures. We should, as in research, public information, curriculum development, be constantly striving for perfection.

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[3] "Students and Society—Report on a Conference," *A Center Occasional Paper* (Santa Barbara, Calif.: Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, Dec. 1967).

[4] James A. Perkins, "The University and Due Process" (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, Dec. 1967).

[5] Charles G. Dobbins and Calvin B. T. Lee, *Whose Goals for American Higher Education?* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1968).

[6] Robert Hessen, "Campus or Battleground? Columbia Is a Warning to All American Universities," *Barron's*, May 20, 1968, p. 1.

That the community college has been relatively free of trouble should be of no comfort to us if there are on our campuses unsolved issues and grievances and if attitudes are such that students are treated as children.

I am convinced that our presidents and our students are working together to develop relationships that will be the model for all institutions of higher education. I recently polled a representative group of junior college presidents, and it was amazing what agreement there was as to what is happening on campus. Without exception, there is a recognition of the problem, and creative solutions are being developed.

I was pleased to note an underlying concern for the climate of the campus, for the tone, the feeling. While I'd like to quote extensively from many of the fine letters I've received, I've decided to close with two quotations from the president of a new college, Dr. John Collins of Moorpark College of the Ventura District:

> Students do not just experience the climate of the campus. They help create it. They help create it when they are apathetic as well as when they are activists. They exist on campus. They are there in large numbers. They are the chief participants. They spend many additional hours on campus in a variety of other actvities. They are never well organized, and they are never effectively represented in the schemes of student government that have been invented--or rather copied—from a paternalistic past. Students represent a vast reservoir of energy and talent, and they perceive the college from a vantage point that no president, no dean, and no faculty member can possibly match. This being the case, students should be taken into the inner sanctum of the management of the college. This can be done without turning the institution over to the students, who, in a two-year college, can accurately be described as transients. . . .

> If you think of a total institution and the role of the president, I believe that the president does well if he is able to accomplish two major tasks, to wit:
>
> 1. He should provide an organization that makes possible well-defined, but easy, means of communication with students, faculty, and his own staff of administrators.
> 2. He should encourage the development of a climate on campus that reflects mutual trust and confidence between his office and the students; his office and the faculty; and his office and his own staff of administrators.
>
> If the president can manage these two things successfully, it seems to me that he has established all of the necessary conditions for growth, constructive dissent, and the tapping of talented human resources that reside in every college community. The president has to face up to the proposition that his is only one of many productive minds on campus, and that he must learn to capitalize on the points of view and contributions of students, faculty, and other administrators. He cannot be in touch with each faculty member or each student. He can only provide the machinery and the atmosphere so that each faculty member and each student has means at his disposal for influencing the direction the institution is taking.

JOSEPH W. FORDYCE

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT AND STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

We have innovatively discovered, among other things, that sometimes the best form of innovation is the distillation of the best practices, procedures, and policies from the past. At any rate, I know of no area in the totality of educational administration where the determination of institutional aims and goals is of such vital importance as it is in the formulation of policies and the implementation of procedures in student personnel services.

DETERMINATION OF AIMS

In the determination of goals and aims, it is not, in my judgment, sufficient merely to indicate the kinds of programs, especially of reasonably formal academic pattern, that are to be offered by an institution. It is not enough to say, for instance, that it is the objective of Overland Junior College to offer a program designed for transfer purposes, for vocational purposes, and for continuing education. As important as these statements are, they represent, it seems to me, means and not ends. Goals and aims must be stated, for maximum meaningfulness, in the form of ends, ends that can be described as desirable changes in human behavior.

At Santa Fe Junior College, we have been pleased to borrow heavily from the past in the determination of these educational purposes and have said that our aims are to assist each student to gain and to use as much of the accumulated knowledge of the world as is possible and practicable in order that he may be able better to:

1) Understand his biological and physical environment and his own interaction to it;
2) Maintain good mental and physical health for himself, his family, and his community;
3) Develop sound moral and spiritual values;
4) Understand his cultural heritage, so that he may gain perspective of his time and place in the world;
5) Exercise privileges and responsibilities of democratic citizenship;
6) Develop rewarding personal and social patterns of life in home and community;
7) Achieve optimum vocational maturity;
8) Develop creativity and appreciation for the creativity of others.

We have also said that every activity, be it formal instruction in Latin or Greek, intercollegiate athletics, or participation in a play, should be carefully examined for its relative value in helping students to move toward one or more of these desired behavioral changes. You will notice that I said relative value. All activities on college campuses have some value. The question is, considering the limited amount of time and resources available to us, what activities can best produce or are most likely to produce the kinds of results to which we have avowed allegiance?

THE VALUE OF STUDENT SERVICES

Many of us feel that the services and functions that are generally described as student personnel services have great potential for a high yield. A misplaced spirit of fairness prompts me to say that not all seasoned, experienced, and wise college presidents would agree. They have chosen, thoughtfully or otherwise, to direct their energies elsewhere and have, much in the same fashion in which they have dropped Latin from the curriculum, decided (perhaps by default) not to direct many of the resources of the college toward implementing programs of student personnel services. As late as ten or twelve years ago, for example, Professor Medsker found that only about 20 percent of his national sample of junior colleges had designated a separate chief student personnel officer. My only advice in this matter is that for an increasing majority of junior college presidents, student personnel services represent an aspect of the educational program that cannot be ignored as they seek not only valuable experiences but the very best of experiences that are likely to promote appropriate goals and aims. If your concept of goals and aims of education do not coincide at least in principle with those enunciated here, it follows that your concept of student personnel services will also be different. If the fundamental tenets of the educational philosophy include "knowledge for knowledge's sake," then the chances are that student personnel services, or some of them, might figure to a very restricted degree in your educational planning.

At this point, I am going to make the assumption that your idea of education, especially of community junior college education, does contain much of the element of student-centeredness that Dr. Simonsen has discussed with us so vividly, and that you are, therefore, interested in at least exploring the possible contributions that might be made to the education of students through student personnel services. If my assumption is correct, I welcome you to the fold and hasten on to the next consideration: What are the services and which of them are most likely to contribute to the results desired in the educational program of a particular institution?

KINDS OF SERVICES

It is not necessarily the function of the president to be thoroughly familiar with all of the variations in the broad expanse of student personnel services, just as he will not be, except by chance, a person with a refined knowledge and skill in accountancy. However, if he decides to use student personnel services as one of the major educational thrusts of his institution, he must be generally familiar with available services and the ends they purport to serve. The literature abounds with their description. I would suggest J. W. McDaniel's *Essential Practices in Student Personnel Services*. More recently, as a result of a national committee study sponsored by the American Association of Junior Colleges and funded by Carnegie, there is a detailed study of the status of junior college student personnel programs as of approximately five years ago. A *Reader's Digest* version of this report was written by Charles Collins under the title of *Junior College Student Personnel Programs.* An even more succinct version, written by Dr. Raines, appeared in the *Junior College Journal* of February 1966. A report by Dr. Jane E. Matson of her stewardship as staff specialist for student personnel work with the American Association of Junior Colleges during the last two years (during which time she has been conducting projects related to the findings of the Carnegie study) is entitled, "Emerging Trends in Junior College Student Personnel Work." It is available from the author, I believe, for those who are interested in a most insightful and rational appraisal of the current position of student personnel services in America's community colleges.

I will not attempt to relate in any detail the operation or even the identification of many of these services. I should like to suggest only a few that I consider essential to the kind of education in which I believe; that is, some which I believe may be maximally productive of the kinds of changes in students that I consider to be valuable. For this purpose, I find it useful to think of student personnel services as direct or indirect, in relation to their effect upon students.

Indirect Services

Indirect services are those that make little or no direct contribution to the education of the student but that, hopefully, make available to him, with a maximum of efficiency and productivity, those services that are of direct educational value. Among these indirect services would be an efficient system of registration, admissions policies and practices appropriate to the nature of the institution, programs of articulation with other institutions of educational importance (those with whom the student may relate before, during, and after his community college experience), and programs of orientation to the institution itself. Evaluative techniques and procedures, including testing and other forms of measurement of academic accomplishment and potential, would probably also be included in this category. Strangely enough for educational institutions, these services of indirect value to the student are perhaps the most commonly and universally accepted. Not uncommonly have we heard the expression, "Well, you just have to have a registration system" (no matter how painful, laborious, and onerous), from administrators who have refused to consider, or who have considered and rejected, the potentiality for more direct educational productivity through the utilization of other student personnel services.

Direct Services

It follows, of course, that direct services are those which make a frontal attack toward producing the kind of human behavioral changes the institution has declared that it wishes. For those who have adopted aims basically similar to those which are ascribed to Santa Fe, counseling becomes the heart and, if you don't mind my mixed analogies, the foundation of such services. Traditionally, counseling has been considered as a face-to-face, person-to-person kind of relationship to the extent that the expression "individual counseling" was redundant and the expression "group counseling" a contradiction in terms. In more recent years, however, emphasis has shifted from technique to purpose and result, with the conclusion that many of the favorable outcomes previously believed to accrue only from individual, one-to-one relationships are believed to be equally resultant from far less expensive group procedures.

Counseling in General Education

At Santa Fe College, we begin our general education program with a core of six common courses, central to which is Basic Education 100. The Individual in a Changing Environment, designed as an intensive group experience the purpose of which is self-discovery and increased self-realization on a highly individualized basis. In addition to the benefits we believe accrue from this counseling experience for students, there is, we believe, a side benefit of permitting counselors to act more like teachers and, therefore, to be more fully accepted by their instructional colleagues.

UTILIZATION OF STUDENT SERVICES

There is a broad array of educational means through which student personnel workers can become senior partners on the educational team, and, with appropriate utilization of such means, student personnel work does not become merely ancillary to classroom instruction but becomes itself a major thrust of the educational attack. Although there may still be some student personnel wheels to be invented, the major cogs are revolving very efficiently and effectively in many junior colleges which welcome their contribution toward educational aims and goals. It is not necessarily the responsibility of the president to be familiar with this complex array in detail, but he must exercise a major role in determining the purposes of the institution and the functions ordinarily called student personnel functions that have the potential for maximum contributions toward meeting those goals and aims.

Staffing

Assuming you have determined the purposes for which you believe student personnel functions can be effective and determined the breadth and scope of the program of student personnel services, your presidential responsibilities are not yet finished. They continue primarily in finding a professionally prepared student personnel faculty. We have reported that, as little as ten years ago, Medsker found only 20 percent of the nation's junior college faculties included a person specifically designated to head the student personnel program. Although the Raines and Matson reports do not mention this finding, it is my impression from those studies that this percentage has increased considerably. Certainly it is not unusual now to find an individual, prepared at the doctorate level, specifically in guidance and student personnel work or counseling psychology, operating as a dean or vice president for student affairs. It is my impression that nothing much happens by way of effective functioning of student personnel services until professional, enthusiastic leadership is provided; and, in my opinion, the president's primary responsibility, once the basic decisions of purpose and procedures have been determined, is the employment of the best individual to be found for this responsibility. This individual, in turn, must be given broad responsibility, in cooperation with the president, for finding other professionally trained individuals to fill the other responsibilities in student personnel work.

The personnel role for the president does not stop with the employment of effective, professionally trained student personnel workers. If student personnel services are to come to full fruition, the entire faculty must be selected with considerable concern for those who possess the so-called student personnel point of view and, hopefully, are at least mildly sophisticated and sympathetic with the potentialities of student personnel services. Not so rare as might have been true in the past is the possibility of finding a dean of academic affairs who has, along with all of his other qualifications, some background in student personnel work.

Delegation of Responsibility

Having found a good student personnel faculty and a sympathetic instructional and business affairs faculty, the president must attempt to maintain a delicate balance between his own direct contribution to the growth of the college through the student personnel functions and the freeing of the persons responsible for the various functions to develop and implement services in light of their own best judgments. It seems to me that a good balance is possible. In this regard, I refer to a very interesting booklet, published by The Dartnell Corporation, of Chicago, called "How to Delegate—Effectively," by Raymond Greyfack. One quotation from that brochure suggests:

> There is one final test, in my opinion, by which it can be determined whether an executive is objective and consistent in the practice of delegating authority and that is this: if he can turn a job over to a junior and then support him in carrying out in a manner quite different from that which he himself would have chosen, then he understands. . . .
>
> A good administrator not only learns to delegate authority, but he also seeks to share his thinking with as many others as possible. This is not an easy habit for some men to acquire, however. Strong characters, in particular, tend to regard thinking as their prerogative only.

Regardless of the procedures, attitudes, and spirit with which the president delegates responsibility, some functions cannot be delegated and simply will not be effectively implemented unless the president continues to exercise responsibility. First among these is that of determining an organization pattern for the entire college and, to a lesser extent, for each of the functions within it that are most likely to facilitate good coordination and effective practices. At Santa Fe, it has been our judgment that two major and equal educational thrusts are possible and, as a result, we have separate vice presidents for academic affairs and for student affairs. These men, hopefully, look upon themselves as partners in the educational enterprise, with each taking a major lead in certain parts of the educational program, but with each being strongly supportive of and complementary to the responsibilities of the other.

Within student personnel services itself, the vice president is augmented by two deans. The three of them form a triumvirate of student personnel leadership, among whom general responsibility for all of the student personnel functions is assigned. Although the practice has been to assign counseling and educational planning to one of the deans, and registration, records, and admissions to another, the theory is that each of the three is an efficient student personnel administrator and could, almost at a moment's notice, take full responsibility for the supervision of any of the student personnel functions that the college has determined to support.

Finally, in reference to personnel, the president needs to recognize issues that are important to professional people in this field, as he does in all of the other fields to which the college relates. He must recognize their "hang-ups." There are a number of issues that are important to student personnel workers currently, and there is considerable variation in the kinds of functions and duties that particular student personnel workers will consider prestigious and status producing. Although college policy ultimately cannot be determined on the basis of these prejudices and biases, the insightful president will attempt to be aware of them and to make assignment of responsibilities that are cognizant of them to the greatest extent possible. Beyond this, he should work with his vice president or dean for student affairs, as part of the total orientation of faculty, to help individuals overcome these feelings, lest they prove to be detrimental to the major purposes of the institution.

FINANCING

I consider a number of other responsibilities to be peculiarly the president's. One of these is financing. Unless student personnel services have an equitable share of the budget, they will never achieve fruition. Inasmuch as the great majority of expenditures of an educational institution are for salaries, adequate financial support means the employment of an adequate number of professional student personnel workers. This is not the whole story, however, because those professionals must be provided with adequate housing, furniture, and equipment at least comparable to that for any other aspect of the college operation. Moreover, careful attention should be given to support personnel in all aspects of education, perhaps especially to those in counseling and student personnel work. The community junior college is in an envious position, in this regard, because no institution is better able to train such para-professionals and then be able to employ its own products. Training and employment of these para-professionals will result in one of the great breakthroughs in student personnel work within the few years. If this breakthrough is to be effective, however, very careful attention must be given not only to preparation, training, and orientation, but also to adequate planning on the part of the professionals.

FACILITIES

The president can exert influence on the total planning and provision of facilities for the student personnel function. In reference to the organization pattern for student personnel services, the concept of centralization *versus* decentralization (and, if decentralization, what form) is a question that must be resolved before adequate facilities can be planned. The relationship and the degree of integration of counseling and other student services with instruction and other academic services is a vital question that must be resolved in reference to facilities planning. Relationships among various student personnel services must be clearly delineated for effective planning. Here again, some assistance is available. As you know, the American Association of Junior Colleges has maintained a facilities project for the last several years, staffed first by a representative of Caudill, Rowlett, and Scott of Houston, and more recently by a representative of Perkins and Will of Chicago. These men have made not only a magnificent contribution to the study of facilities for junior colleges, but, perhaps even more important as the years go by, there will be a strong cadre of architects and architectural firms who have had a continuing firsthand relationship and involvement with the exciting development of the junior college movement in America. As a specific result of this relationship, there was a conference about a year ago in which a group of conferees spent some three or four days examining specifically the planning of student personnel facilities. A report of this conference, written by Charles Collins, called *Premises: Planning Student Personnel Facilities,* is available through the offices of the American Association of Junior Colleges. I would be more than modest if I did not invite your attention to a page of that brochure, entitled, "Where Is Home Base in this Ball Game?" in which some of the ideas of Dr. Terry O'Banion are expressed in reference to the development of Santa Fe. He points out, among other things, that for maximum effectiveness the entire campus must be the student personnel facility. All that this says is that every square inch of the campus should be devoted to the kind of educational enterprises that a particular institution considers to be important.

INFORMATION AND INTERPRETATION

I will mention only briefly here what I consider to be another great responsibility of the president. Despite some delegation of function in this matter, he must take primary responsibility for providing continuous and pervasive programs of in-servie education and for interpreting the functions of the college both internally and externallly. In this regard, he must take leadership in helping student personnel workers develop a philosophy and point of view appropriate to the aims of the community junior college, and he must serve as chief interpreter of the student personnel worker and his services to the other members of the college faculty and staff and to the community. Public relations in the field of student personnel work, as elsewhere, cannot depend upon propaganda or the dissemination of information alone. An effective program consists primarily of a job well done, and if results are productive and effective, they will tend to speak for themselves. Beyond that, however, it does no harm for the president to serve as their mouthpiece on every possible occasion.

EVALUATION

The responsibility that I consider second only to the determination of goals and the determination of how to use student personnel functions to accomplish those goals is the function of evaluation. The Raines-Carnegie study, gloomy as its results were in many respects, was nowhere more pessimistic than in the area of evaluation. A generalization probably more valid than most is that junior colleges are doing very little to promote the kind of research on the basis of which effective evaluation of services can be effected. I feel that the same somewhat dolorous statement could be made about any other aspect of any other segment of education, but the fact remains that student personnel work, perhaps because of its very nature and functions, has at least an equal and perhaps a greater obligation to take responsibility for determining its own effectiveness. Over the next few years, increasing attention will be given to the research responsibility within the junior college. More frequent will be appointments of directors of institutional research, who, cooperatively with the other major officers of the institution, can begin evaluation of all aspects of the educational enterprise, student personnel services certainly no less than any other. Some attention was given in the Carnegie study to processes for evaluation, some of which can be amazingly simple and uncomplicated. Unsophisticated number counting, for example, can be an improvement over what exists in most of America's junior colleges at the present time.

CONCLUSION

I suspect that the job of the president may seem a bit formidable. I must apologize for this and point out that my only excuse for making it sound formidable is that it indeed is. But, as President Dodds has said:

> We believe that the president must preserve his educational leadership, that it must indeed be enhanced, but in no area can he do it all himself; he must entrust wide discretion to others. He reveals where his heart lies and sets the character of his administration by the choice he makes between those functions to which he gives his most personal, intimate, and continuing attention and those which he generally leaves to others. We believe that implicit in the office he holds is the duty to participate actively in framing and carrying out the scholarly policies of his institution.

We can only add that for the president who finds one of his primary allegiances in student personnel functions, the rewards will indeed be great.

CLINTON B. MAYERS

THE STUDENT AND THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT

A joint committee from ten national educational organizations met at Washington, D.C., in June of 1967. Its purpose was to draft the Joint Statement on the Rights and Freedoms of Students. The Preamble to that document states, in part:

> Academic institutions exist for the transmission of knowledge, pursuuit of truth, the development of students, and the general well-being of society. Free inquiry and free expression are indispensable to the attainment of these goals. As members of the academic community, students should be encouraged to develop the capacity for critical judgment and to engage in a sustained and independent search for truth.[1]

Institutional and organizational methods for achieving the purposes as set forth in the Preamble may vary from one school to another, but minimum standards of academic freedom are essential to any educational institution. The right to learn and the right to teach must irrevocably be a part of the national fabric of our freedom. Our academic leaders must, and, for the most part, do, encourage free expression and inquiry. However, the excellence of student performance must be judged solely on the basis of scholastic and personal achievement and not on opinions of matters unrelated to higher educational standards.

We live in an age of revolution in knowledge, technologically and scientifically based, and we must face on an almost daily basis complications, brought about by this revolution, which at times appear to be almost incomprehensible. These complications are embodied in the political, economic, social, and cultural aspects of daily living. Our once memorable institutions of accepted social behavior are now tumbling about our ears with a speed that almost defies understanding.

Difficult as it may be, our colleges and universities must keep pace with a changing world. They must meet the immediate challenge of reality. As one writer puts it,

> The university administrations must understand that dictation and requirement, without explanation and consultation are no longer possible.[2]

However, the notion that institutions of higher learning are instruments for revolutionary social change is entirely incompatible with the traditions of academic freedom. Neither are academic institutions to be construed as organizations put together for the sole purpose of preserving the status quo.

The president of a junior college must, of necessity, wield awesome influence over the opinions and actions of an ever-growing segment of society—the college student. There is no institution in our country today in which opposition to traditional views and criticism of the status quo is more prevalent than in our colleges. A junior college president must be capable of dealing with the demands of change and the unrest related thereto.

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[1] American Association of Professors, "Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students," *AAUP Bulletin*, LIII, No. 4 (Dec. 1967), 369.

[2] Franklin D. Murphy, " 'To Do,' 'To Feel' Must Be Balanced," *Los Angeles Times*, June 18, 1968, Section 2, p. 5.

STUDENT UNREST

History tells us that one great educator became so incensed with what he referred to as the "licentious, outrageous, and disgraceful behavior"[3] of the students at his college that he quit in disgust. The college was at Carthage, the year was 383 A.D., and the disgruntled teacher was St. Augustine. This incident would seem to indicate that student conduct can sometimes try the patience of even the saints. We are involved in coping with this same situation now. However, seldom before have there been so many militantly organized groups of students trying so hard to change the order of things in their colleges as well as in their countries. Everywhere there is resentment that the youth should so shatter our preconceived notions of carefree college life.

But what is really behind the student revolt? I, for one, do not accept the theory that the trouble on our college campuses is a product of an organized conspiracy; rather, I feel that it is brought about by an assertion of discontent, which has been brewing for years and has been brought to a head by widespread opposition to the Vietnam War. First, it is a revolt against the old-fashioned idea of stern discipline. It is possible that there may be considerable justice in this complaint, for admission to college in bygone years was usually at the age of thirteen to fourteen, with the result that the college faculty acted as parents in absentia. It has been hard for them to break the habit of generations, and the college student of today, usually an adult, is demanding to be treated as one.

Second, students are rebelling against a situation brought about by what seems to be the unwieldly size of educational institutions. They complain bitterly about the inaccessibility of their professors and seem convinced that a student is not looked upon as an individual but rather as a number, a computerized unit. There is some justification, too, in their complaint, though the student himself must bear part of the blame.

Third, students are revolting against what they call the inappropriateness, uselessness, or irrelevance of much of the college curriculum which they are forced to study. They insist that many courses are included out of respect to tradition or in accordance with the ambiguous and often confused demands of the business world; or in line with standards laid down from generation to generation, standards which they maintain do not belong in the world of today. William O. Douglas once said,

> If we are to receive full service from government, universities must give us trained men. That means a constant reorientation of university instruction and research not for the mere purpose of increasing technical proficiency, but for the purpose of keeping abreast with social and economic change. Government is no better than its men.[4]

Fourth, and perhaps most serious of all, is the fact that the majority of student complaints seem to be centered around the role played by the faculty in the educational process. Here the grievous responsibilities of the president make their sternest demands on his skill and knowledge as an administrator. In dealing with the very sensitive relationships of the college community, the president must be capable of displaying tolerance and understanding, and, above all, never react recklessly or impetuously under the demands of student pressure. This is a lot easier said than done.

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[3] "Time Essay: Why Those Students Are Protesting," *Time,* May 3, 1968, p. 24.

[4] William O. Douglas, in *The New Dictionary of Thoughts* (Standard Book Co., 1961), p. 164.

History is replete with examples of the painful fact that society will put up with just so much hanky-panky. At that point it either begins to fight back or it disintegrates. Anarchy follows chaos, and repression is close behind. The cure is not repression. As stated during the month of May 1968 by Dr. John Spiegal, director of Lemberg Center for the Study of Violence at Brandeis University:

> The chief social strain in the United States has always been the incompatibility between its democratic ideals and its authoritarian practices. The rights of man, the equality between peoples and the principle of representative government, the main stems in the democratic philosophy, have from the birth of our country been pitted against an underlying and largely inarticulate authoritarianism modeled after the European social systems that the American Revolution was presumed to have overthrown.[5]

Unfortunately, it has become accepted around the world, at least by the modern nations, that the United States has developed a tolerance toward violence. It does seem as though violent dissent has become a way of life in our country. As an interested student, I find it strange that so intelligent a nation, extremely individualistic in all other respects, should so willingly resort to the rule of the mob. Dissent, discussion, argumentation, and reason are the most precious rights for which our forefathers fought and died, and they form the basis of the American system of government of the people, by the people, and for the people. But to misuse these rights cheapens them and poses a frightening threat to the American way of life. I am willing to accept, in fact I heartily approve, the increasing concern of this generation with the necessity for moral change, but I continually emphasize to my peers that desirable and efficacious change cannot be accomplished by purely emotional outbursts. I have always been and will always be convinced that the search for moral sincerity is impossible when its achievement is attempted through the medium of rioting, violence, and hatred. The world today faces a crisis—a crisis generated not entirely, but to a large extent, by the younger generation. The grim specters of anarchy and repression are visible and it would seem to be clear that only intelligent, thoughtful, and positive action on the part of all thinking people will provide the answers by which academic as well as political freedom can be maintained.

In the presence of such conditions, the role of the junior college president becomes increasingly vital. To minimize the dangers inherent in today's widespread disorders on the campus would be to invite disaster. The thinking faculty member recognizes these dangers. The student must be made to understand that the president of the junior college has been appointed to his position by duly elected officials, and that his authority must always of necessity be commensurate with his responsibilities. He is usually a man of unquestioned integrity and capability, and almost always a person with vast experience as an educator and administrator. In spite of the misguided notions of a minority of students, a college cannot be run on a strictly democratic basis or by a majority vote. The president of an educational institution must be concerned not only with the problems of the present student body, but also with those of the future. The student must realize that as a member of a particular college community he is peculiarly preoccupied with the present. A Cornell economics professor, Alfred E. Kahn, applauds the new social concern of today's student but sees impatience and intellectual arrogance in much of the demand for what he calls "instant democracy."[6] I sometimes believe that a substantial percentage of the dissident students adopt a moral position as a coverup for self-interest.

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[5] Louis B. Fleming, "Melting Pot Legacy Provokes Strains," *Los Angeles Times*, June 9, 1968, Section G:102, p. 1.

The president who can recognize the difference between justifiable complaint and unnecessary and unjustified harassment is the administrator respected by the student body. It is my opinion that in the months and years to come the president of a junior college will be called upon to exercise judgment and restraint to a much greater degree than ever before. Regardless of the deep commitment to protest and activism demonstrated by today's students, I am inclined to the belief that they have shown a great deal more restraint than the classes of the next few years will practice. The president will certainly be confronted with a continual barrage of problems inculcated in ever-changing social conditions. In addition to the relatively routine tasks of administering the day-to-day job of imparting specialized knowledge to searching minds, he must be sensitive to the radical changes taking place in the intellectual apparatus of this generation. Albert Einstein stated:

> It is essential that the student acquire an understanding of and vivid sense for the beautiful and of the morally good. Otherwise he—with his specialized knowledge—more closely resembles a well-trained dog than a harmoniously developed person.[7]

However, it is one thing to find fault and to criticize, but an entirely different matter to suggest methods for improvement. To be a Monday morning quarterback requires little imagination. What may be done to improve the student-president relationship? What does the student feel he has a right to expect from the man charged with the cumbersome responsibilities of administering the affairs of a college? What tools are at hand to get the job done?

STUDENT GOVERNMENT AND THE PRESIDENT

As an active participant in student government since the beginning of my college career, it has been my good fortune to have met and worked with some outstanding men and women in the field of education. I am convinced that properly organized and competently led student government organizations can be of inestimable value to the president of a junior college. Student leaders, because of the very nature of their responsibilities, are in a position to have their fingers on the pulse of student activity and attitude. They know what the student is thinking because of their daily contacts on campus. The average student will air his views with the student body president much more readiy than he would with the college president. As a member of a college community a student should be free to express his views and opinions with regard to institutional policy, curriculum, or any other matter of general interest to the student body. Given the opportunity, student government can contribute valuable assistance within prescribed jurisdictional limits, of course, to the formulation of institutional policies which may affect student affairs. The student likes to feel that he is being considered as an individual and accorded his rights as an adult human being. He even respects discipline administered in a just and dignified manner. The proper utilization of the facilities of student government will almost guarantee a harmonious and effective relationship between student and president. Since the college administration must of necessity be concerned with the future as well as the present it must have the authority to make any and all final decisions, but I am convinced that future harmony rests to a large extent on a substantially greater input of student counsel, opinion, and cooperation.

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[6] "Time Essay: The Cynical Idealists of '68," *Time*, June 7, 1968, p. 83.
[7] Albert Einstein, in *The New Dictionary of Thoughts* (Standard Book Co., 1961), p. 164.

My instincts tell me that, regardless of a widespread belief to the contrary, today's youth has a profound respect for responsible adult leadership. Reason dictates that while we may accept the fact that our forefathers, as well as the present adult generation, may have done some things wrong, they have certainly done a great many more things right. Our great nation is not the product of bunglers and idiots. The present generation will do well to heed much of the wisdom and counsel of their forebears. But responsible leaders must be conscious of the watchful eye of youth, and they will be well rewarded if they remember that disciplinary proceedings must play a role substantially secondary to example and counseling.

In assessing the quality of the student-faculty relationship through discussion with student leaders during my term as president of the California Junior College Student Government Association, I arrived at the conclusion that the embryo of campus difficulties was formed primarily because of the lack of intelligent communication between student and college administration. This rather unfortunate situation has been brought about by several reasons, not the least of which is indifference on the part of some college administrators to student grievances. This, in turn, creates a deep sense of mistrust for faculty concern of student problems. Both the president and the student are entitled to have high expectations regarding the performance of each other.

Broadly speaking, the president of a junior college must prepare his graduates to enter two separate fields of endeavor. The first involves the entrance of the student into the business world, the trades, the professions, or marriage. The second finds the student entering an institution of advanced learning. In either case, he must be prepared to cope with the myriad problems he will surely encounter. Many of these men and women will enter the government service, and some will become great leaders of tomorrow. A responsibility of this kind places an awesome burden on the shoulders of the college president. Aristotle said, "All who have meditated on the art of governing mankind have been convinced that the fate of empires depends on the education of youth."[8] I believe that what the sculptor does to the block of marble, the educator does to the human mind. The great, the good, the hero, or the wise often lie concealed in an obscure student. A proper education can discover and bring to light these majestic qualities and talents.

From the student standpoint, a dedicated college president is a symbol of leadership and inspiration. He is, or can be, one of the unsung heroes of the vital educational process. The student looks to him for guidance and wisdom as well as instruction and administrative leadership. For, as Daniel Webster said:

> Knowledge does not comprise all which is contained in the large term of education. The

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[8] Aristotle, in *The New Dictionary of Thoughts* (Standard Book Co., 1961), p. 168.

feelings are to be disciplined; the passions are to be restrained; true and worthy motives are to be inspired; a profound religious feeling is to be instilled, and pure morality inculcated under all circumstances. All this is comprised in education.[9]

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[9] Daniel Webster, in *The New Dictionary of Thoughts* (Standard Book Co., 1961), p. 164.

JAMES W. HOBSON

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE PRESIDENT AND FINANCES

The new junior college president must, in order to give leadership to his college, give guidance to his board, and carry out effectively the objects of the institution, possess an understanding of finances and fiscal management. In the real world, whether we like it or not, every endeavor usually relates to resources which generally mean dollars. In today's society, higher education is feeling the pinch of limited funds, coupled with increased demands by society for more education. It follows that the president must understand the available sources of funds and then set a climate for maximum efficiency in the management of these limited monies.

Unfortunately, the dollars for financing the expenditures of higher education come from only three sources:

1. Charges (tuition and fees).
2. Government (federal, state, and local).
3. Philanthropy (endowment income, gifts, and bequests).

Since there are no new sources of finances on the horizon, much attention is being focused on increasing the income received from these three sources. The future doesn't look too bright. Increases just to keep pace with the rising economy will be hard to come by—and acquiring additional amounts beyond this presents an even more formidable problem.

Charges to students, especially for instructional fees and tuition, have been increasing. The limit has almost been reached. Increased governmental support, naturally, means increased taxes or increased deficit spending, both of which encounter substantial public resistance. Philanthropy will continue to depend upon the giving mood of foundations and corporate executives, and the trend seems to be away from support for instruction. There seems to be no single solution to the search for means to augment these sources of financial support.

I am not trying to describe a hopeless situation, but, instead, I am attempting to prove that now, more than ever, the junior college president must rely on increased cost effectiveness for every dollar spent, which in itself demands efficient fiscal management. These conditions, I submit, force the president to concern himself more than ever with the fiscal management of the college.

Let me touch on some of the basic areas in the management of business and finance that are of particular importance for the President, emphasizing the need to employ sound management techniques to get the maximum utilization of the resources available to the college.

Junior colleges, reflecting their size, are organized into several areas of administration. Although colleges differ in their organization, they all have at least two principal areas—educational administration and business administration.

The primary concern of educational administration is instruction; secondary concerns are selection, admission, and supervision of students and the administration of community services.

TABLE I

PREVALENCE OF THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE CHIEF BUSINESS OFFICER FOR BUSINESS OFFICE FUNCTIONS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

Function	Number	Percent assigned responsibility
Total number of institutions	194	100.0
1. Budget preparation and control	183	94.3
2. Physical plant maintenance and operation	160	82.5
3. Collecting income and disbursing funds	176	90.7
4. Purchasing of equipment, supplies, and services	175	90.2
5. Fiscal accounting and reporting	177	91.2
6. Payroll	162	83.5
7. Business management of auxiliary activities	155	79.9
8. Finances of intercollegiate athletics	130	67.0
9. General services	121	62.4
10. Business management aspects of institutional studies	104	53.6
11. Planning and construction of buildings	112	57.7
12. Internal audit	151	77.8
13. Nonacademic personnel administration and services	116	59.8
14. Business aspects of student loan program	132	68.0
15. Investment of endowment and other funds	104	53.6
16. Business management aspects of contracts other than research	118	60.8
17. Data processing	71	36.6
18. Finances of student activities	142	73.2
19. Business management aspects of research contracts	54	27.8
Total affirmative answers	2,543	

Source: Leslie F. Robbins and Paul K. Nance, "Survey of Chief Business Officers of Colleges and Universities, 1965," *Business Management*, OE-53027 (Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1966), p. 6.

Business administration may be subdivided into nine well-defined groups:

1. Fiscal accounting and reporting.
2. Receipt, custody, and disbursement of funds.
3. Budget preparation and control.
4. Management of auxiliary activities.
5. Physical plant maintenance and operation.
6. Procurement.

7. Nonacademic personnel administration.
8. Investment of funds.
9. Data processing.

The typical chief business officer of a junior college has responsibility for a larger number and a greater diversity of functions than anyone other than the president himself. As an example, 194 junior colleges who responded to a federal survey on the topic provided the information shown in Table I. Some of the nineteen separately listed functions were further subdivided into still more separate and unrelated functions. As an example, under function 7 in Table I, *Business management of auxiliary activities,* there are likely to be found financial aspects of such operations as food servicing, bookstore, student center, vending machines, and travel bureau. The burden of effective supervision of these, along with the other eighteen major functions, can well be beyond the capabilities of the business officer.

TABLE II

MEAN SALARY OF CHIEF BUSINESS OFFICERS OF JUNIOR COLLEGES BY SIZE OF ENROLLMENT AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTROL: 1965 (corrected to 1967)

Control	1,000 to 2,499		2,500 or more	
	Number	Mean	Number	Mean
Total	94	$11,529	100	$14,293
Public	76	11,491	96	14,357
Private	18	11,689	4	12,750

Source: Robbins and Nance, p. 9.

Some experts in business organization and management place the allowable limit on top supervision reporting to one administrative officer at from six to ten. The chief business officer is likely to be acutely aware of the shortage of funds and of the many demands for any available money. Therefore, in spite of the great growth in enrollment, and a consequent proliferation of business office work, he may be reluctant to enlarge his staff. However, if this aspect of the principles of management—the limit on the span of effective control—is not observed, the end result may be a gradual deterioration in the quality of the supervision the business officer will be able to render.

While I'm on the topic of the chief business officer, you may be interested in the mean salary of the positions in junior colleges, shown in Table II.

Let me return to the nine well-defined groups of functions found in almost every junior college, and cover these areas in some depth, suggesting to you some of the newer developments in keeping with today's emphasis on the systems approach and new techniques of management.

FISCAL ACCOUNTING AND REPORTING

Accounting is one area where the question of centralization versus decentralization isn't asked even in the multi-campus operations. However, there is a wide variety in types of accounting systems used by junior colleges. Please allow me to observe that 99 percent of the systems in use today are out of date and fail in meeting the needs of management, but tend to meet the restrictions of statutes or by-laws. Most systems are of the fund accounting type with the most common groupings of funds including:

1. Current—unrestricted.
2. Current—restricted.
3. Loan.
4. Endowment and other nonexpendable.
5. Annuity.
6. Agency.

What is needed by community colleges (and I might add the movement is underway) is a uniform cost accounting system. Such a system would be a modified accrual and cost basis of accounting, utilizing budgetary controls. It would become an effective administrative tool by providing cost information for the activity centers of the organization, for which costs are accumulated and criteria established to measure performance.

The president should see that adequate reports are prepared for the board of the college and distributed on a timely but regular basis. The reports should, in addition to reflecting the cash position, summarize the current income and expenditures. Many of the junior and community college boards, fashioning themselves after the local school board, have required board approval on all accounts-payable checks before signature and issue. Their request for a register has included the payee, amount, and items purchased. Orienting the board to the accounting system and providing meaningful financial reports can build the necessary confidence to remove this time-consuming and tedious task from the board meeting.

Most college districts have external audits. The president should insist on such an audit, review it thoroughly, and take the necessary steps to implement the procedural changes set out in the recommendations. The business officer should be given the responsibility to assure that routine internal audits are made of all departments authorized to receive cash.

Remember: The purchase of at least a minimum amount of accounting equipment is more economical than labor cost without it. Such equipment will also furnish more adequate control and will expedite record keeping.

RECEIPT, CUSTODY, AND DISBURSEMENT OF FUNDS

The collection of income is a twofold responsibility involving the collection of monies owed to the college, and accurate counting and receipting of monies received.

Disbursement of funds involves a regularized legal procedure for payment of all of the college's obligations in the right amount on an appropriate time schedule.

In many new institutions a board member signs the checks, in many others the president and one other person are authorized to sign. Regardless of the size of the institution, I recommend that check-signing devices be used, that the signature and control be vested in an employee of the college—not a board member—that the president not be involved, and above all that the requirement of a counter signature on a check be avoided. Proper controls can be easily established on the signature plate. The business manager and one other trusted business staff member can be the alternate. Always keep in mind that misuse of funds is a constant threat; show concern for proper controls and safeguards by backing up your business officer.

BUDGET PREPARATION AND CONTROL

An institutional budget may be described as a statement of anticipated receipts and proposed expenditures for a given period based upon thoroughly prepared estimates and a careful study of the policies set forth by the governing board. It's a dollars-and-cents explanation of the college program and its preparation involves the time and talents of many administrators. Although the ultimate authority in budget matters is reserved to the governing board, the responsibility to present the budget recommendation is the president's. Considerations in the budget process are:

1. The business officer supervises the budget operation because it's a fiscal responsibility.
2. The budget arrangement should follow the same pattern as accounting and reporting, and should meet requirements necessary for easy classification of information by type, function, and object.
3. The preparation of the budget is by group participation.
4. Budgets should be controlled by departments and divisions, as it is the department and division head's responsibility to live within the approved budget.
5. Since all factors cannot be anticipated in planning, revisions to the budget should be made when conditions warrant.

Budget preparation is really a planning process for allocating resources, but in most cases it's a very short-range plan—usually one year—and, traditionally, capital and operating budgets are prepared separately. Often each budget is prepared in different offices at different times, and it is not uncommon to find expenditures budgeted for staff with little or no regard for space to house the new person. More important, there is little opportunity to consider alternates in deploying the institution's total resources.

One excellent system of budgeting is based on a three-fold planning, programming, and budgeting system approach begun in 1961 by the U. S. Department of Defense. Modifying this system to fit a college environment can bring to bear full expertise to all campus planners (academic, budget, and capital outlay) on the problem of resource allocation. According to Dilley,[1] the program budget approach which is an integral part of this system:

> . . . differs in many ways from conventional fiscal budgeting. It may not be possible, ordinarily, to eliminate the fiscal budget; however, much of the information required for it can be obtained from a program budget form. Some of the more dramatic differences between the two kinds of budgeting are the following:
>
> 1. Budgeting is done in such a way as to exhibit the *objectives* of particular programs and to conduct the budgeting process with those objectives in mind. Both the overall program and the programs of lesser elements are considered and integrated. Budgeting is subordinated to program and not vice versa.
>
> 2. *All* the resources and outputs of programs, not merely fiscal resources and outputs, are considered. Time, space, personnel, cost of students, and types and sizes of classes are all exhibited in the budgeting process. "True" costs of programs, not just dollar costs, are thereby made manifest.

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[1] Frank B. Dilley, "Program Budgeting in the University Setting," *The Educational Record*, XLVII, No 4 (Fall 1966), 474–489.

3. Budget items relating to particular programs are *put together* instead of being separated into income and expenditure, as in the normal fiscal budget. Thus each program is seen as a whole, with resources and outputs related to each other.

4. *Comparative* study of inputs and outputs of different programs is facilitated; hence information necessary for decisions to expand or contract in the light of costs and results is compiled. Ordinary budgeting procedures make this comparison difficult, since data are not organized by program but by category of input item.

5. Study of objectives *in relation* to objectives of larger and smaller units is made mandatory. Program elements must be combined into larger programs in such a way as to achieve the objectives of the larger unit. Opportunity for elimination or addition (or both) of elements is thus facilitated. A continuous self-study is embodied in the budgeting process itself.

6. Inventory of the *external environment* and the changes which can be anticipated in it are made available. A program's goals, accomplishments, and resources depend upon the support of its environment, and realistic assessment of that environment is essential to sound planning.

7. Once the process is begun, considerable *pressure is removed* from planners. Basic directions for the future, both for long-range and for intermediate goals, are established in principle. Once the basic decisions have been reached, proportionately more attention can be given year by year to revision and reallocation.

8. Once outputs and inputs are located by program, the contribution of elements to overall programs can be identified more precisely, and allocation of resources can be made more *selectively*. Selectivity rather than budgeting by increment becomes practicable; this is desirable since choice is always constrained by scarcity of resources, and those resources must be allocated in the optimal manner if they are to be most effectively used.

To make this system successful, long-range plans for the academic development, building construction program, and a fiscal plan are integrated.

MANAGEMENT OF AUXILIARY ACTIVITIES

Auxiliary activities are self-supporting business enterprises which should contribute to the educational purposes and goals of the institution. Generally they relate to both business management and student personnel services. In junior colleges, the activities are, as a rule, bookstore, food service, student center; however, in some colleges these activities include housing, photographic studios, and printing shops. We can also consider a variety of services for the departments, such as duplicating, mailing, addressing, vending machines, blueprinting, sign painting, and data processing. In this vein, the service department is operated independently under the general supervision of the business officer by charging departments, using their services on a time-and-material basis so that they become, in effect, self-supporting. Costs will then appear in the budgets of the using departments.

PHYSICAL PLANT MAINTENANCE AND OPERATION

Plant-space utilization is a matter of concern to college administrators. An adequate inventory of all facilities should be kept to assist in space-utilization studies.

Since unattended repair needs spiral with the lapse of time, the repair costs increase at an almost geometric rate. Because much of the custodial work is repetitive, substantial improvement can be made by studying the various methods of performance.

Probably the most important part of the physical plant administration is a regular inspection and security program. Preventive maintenance, which is the most economical part of the maintenance program, should include scheduled inspection and service to all machinery, roofs, interior walls, windows, doors, fire extinguishers, and traffic lanes.

An up-to-date campus map, locating all service lines, shutoff valves, fuses, and alarm stations, is a necessity.

PROCUREMENT

Purchasing is another of the very externally visible functions, and because of the bidding regulations of most colleges it is one which receives undue attention from the governing board. On the other hand, the faculty is generally critical of the standardizations made to effect economies and what they report to be unreasonable time periods to obtain needed equipment and supplies.

The president should centralize the purchasing authority so that only one person is responsible for obligating the college, except for standing purchase orders for stated periods in which authority is delegated to given persons to purchase from certain companies. Benefits derived from such centralization are: (1) economical use of funds, (2) quality levels maintained, (3) administrative and academic personnel freed, (4) general supplies available when needed.

The president should also obtain from the governing board a policy on bid taking which allows the staff to make most decisions on awards, reserving for the board only the awarding of extremely large bids. This procedure will expedite the procurement cycle. The purchasing department should be given the necessary flexibility to award orders to the lowest *qualified* bidder and not just the lowest bidder.

In addition to the procurement function, the purchasing department has responsibilities for central stores service and property inventory.

NONACADEMIC PERSONNEL

The business officer is usually responsible for the employment of nonacademic personnel. The administration of this function requires establishment of a sound, comprehensive program which encompasses employees' rights and responsibilities and in which the employee understands his role and its importance.

In my mind, and I may be alone in this thought, the separation of the personnel function into two categories with two sets of standards, two bases of payment, and frequently two unequal fringe-benefit programs is unwise for the efficient management of any enterprise. The nonacademic employees, as we term them, play just as vital a role in accomplishing the institution's objectives as do the faculty members. Therefore, an institution should have a single personnel office: to screen applicants and otherwise aid in recruitment (with the hiring decisions being made by the departments); to keep records on the employees' attendance, vacations, and personal background; to provide statistical information in the form of reports; to provide fringe-benefit insurance counseling to employees; to make appropriate job analyses and establish appropriate salary ranges; to provide training for employees, to upgrade their skills and to help them understand the problems involved in supervision; to promote an equal-employment-opportunity atmosphere; and to foster the integration of all employees, regardless of race or religion. These are functions basic to a personnel program. They can easily be administered to all employees without considering the artificial barrier we generally find in institutions of higher education, which divides the human resources into two categories—academic and nonacademic.

In today's complex society, the efficient management of human resources provides immeasurable returns to any college. As a general rule, well-conceived personnel policies, reduced to writing, and practiced religiously, provide the most harmonious environment. The president should give leadership to the personnel department in the creation of these policies while the board, through its approval, provides the stability for uniform application.

One important thing about any salary schedules developed as a part of this program is the absolute necessity for flexibility. An administrator, in order to recruit the highest qualified staff, cannot be tied in by rigid lock-step salary schedules which demand minimum-level entrance requirements. Some guidelines and the mechanism for obtaining exception to these guidelines will provide the flexibility and the control necessary to do the best recruitment while affording equality to all employees.

INVESTMENT OF FUNDS

It behooves us to make certain that all idle monies are properly invested to take advantage of today's high rates of return. Junior college presidents need not be too deeply concerned about the problems of investing endowment funds, but there are great returns available by the proper investment of current funds. As an example, many junior college districts are supported by state and local taxes, receiving large portions of their income annually or semiannually. From an accurate cash-flow projection of the institution's money on an in-and-out basis, investment schedules can be made to get the maximum return from every dollar invested. There is no reason to keep a large amount of money in any commercial account when a low balance would allow many dollars to be invested in very short-term media.

Too often, college business officers look at investments in terms of funds idle for three or more months, when in reality it is possible to invest money for periods as ture on a check be avoided. Proper control can be easily established on the sig- short as three days. When I was in St. Louis, the postponement of a real estate transaction from Thursday to Monday allowed me to invest the money available for that real estate transaction and earn $1,100, even though it was, in essence, for one-and-one-half days. Treasury notes, certificates of deposit, open-time savings accounts, and bank repurchase agreements provide many avenues and meet all the requirements of college districts that limit investments of tax funds in U.S. obligations, even though the final responsibility of all investment actions rests with the governing board. Practically, it is neither possible nor desirable for the board to attempt to deal with all the problems connected with investment management. Competent and independent investment advice can be secured through investment bankers, trust companies, the investment departments of banks, and professional investment counsellors.

One device that is not frequently used is requesting bids from financial institutions on monies, requiring that they quote interest for different maturities. Frequently, using this device, banks that have particular cash-management problems will bid higher than normal rates for very short maturities. This device also becomes a public relations tool and avoids the dissent from the community which is fostered when a college deals entirely with one financial institution. Although boards will differ in their degree of involvement in investments, I would say the preference should be given to an arrangement wherein the board establishes broad working policies and requires submission of reports for approval at stated intervals.

DATA PROCESSING

Most college presidents candidly admit they know very little about computers and computing. Many presidents, trained in fields of learning, lack exposure to computers. The multiple burdens of the presidency are sufficient for them to protest that time has not allowed them to understand the mysteries, real or imaginary, of computing.

In the context of society as a whole, the development of computer resources is of concern at the very highest levels of educational leadership. The computer may not be sufficient to solve all administrative and academic problems but in an increasing number of instances it is proving itself necessary.

The basic administrative uses of computers are either transactional or managerial. In almost every case, automated systems are employed for routine transactions—accounts and budgets, payroll, receiving and disbursing, student registration, cumulative records, grade reports, and scheduling. Not as frequently will you find them used for managerial purposes—planning, modeling, simulation, institutional research and decision making.

John Caffrey and Charles J. Mosmann have described the uses of computers in educational institutions:

> In some respects, the financial and business problems of institutions of higher education are more complicated than those of many commercial and industrial organizations. The budgeting and management of funds from a great variety of sources, disbursement to a wide variety of agencies and personnel, and responsibility for the management of resources and for a wide variety of quasi-business enterprises, all combine to put great pressure on the administration for wise and effective planning and control. The advantages of computerized systems, even in small colleges, are more widely accepted and more easily demonstrated in this field of application than in any other.
>
> Though there are several ways of classifying the various functions performed because of differences in viewpoint, history, legal requirements, or scope of operations, the following examples of major areas of concern have received attention in almost every institution interested in automated systems:
>
> *Budget preparation and control:* current operations, research contracts, long-range development and planning.
>
> *Disbursements:* accounts payable, payroll, travel, scholarships and loans.
>
> *Revenues:* accounts receivable, fee collections, gifts, rents, royalties, state and federal grants, cash deposits.
>
> *Endowment management:* cash deposits, investments, securities, real estate.
>
> *Purchasing and inventory:* facilities, equipment, supplies, materials.
>
> *Auxiliary activities:* contracts, special laboratories, presses and publications, athletic events, book and supply stores, dormitories, cafeterias, apartment houses, industrial park development.
>
> A comprehensive financial accounting system permits complete integration of all files and procedures across departments, programs, and functions. It provides for daily processing of transactions as well as exception reporting and close control of all revenues and disbursements—and a sound basis for budget planning. A computerized system can provide various methods for analysis and control which are not feasible under a manual system.[2]

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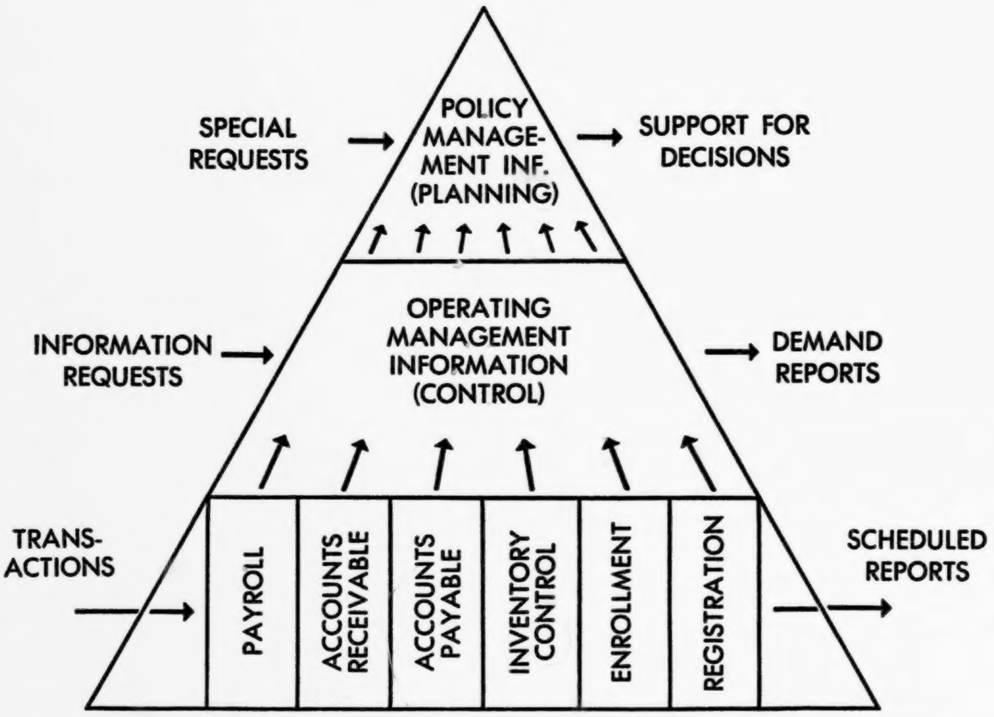
[2] John Caffrey and Charles J. Mosmann, *Computers on Campus* (American Council on Education), pp. 52–53.

The introduction and growth of automated data-processing systems ultimately affect all levels in an organization, but the effects are usually felt at lower levels first and gradually spread upward through the ranks. Redesigning to integrate a system more effectively or increase its usefulness at higher administrative levels may be more difficult and expensive as the system grows in size and complexity. It is therefore worthwhile for the president to take time early in the game to think ahead about what he ultimately wants and what is feasible.


SPECIAL REQUESTS
POLICY MANAGE-MENT INF. (PLANNING)
SUPPORT FOR DECISIONS
INFORMATION REQUESTS
OPERATING MANAGEMENT INFORMATION (CONTROL)
DEMAND REPORTS
TRANS-ACTIONS
PAYROLL
ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE
ACCOUNTS PAYABLE
INVENTORY CONTROL
ENROLLMENT
REGISTRATION
SCHEDULED REPORTS

Perhaps the most important implication for the college president to understand about an automated system is that a system which provides more, better, and newer kinds of information more rapidly on shorter notice is bound to affect the entire administrative system. Growing institutions obviously generate more and more information, not only about increasing numbers of students and staff but about problems of growth itself (facilities, library books, faculty recruitment, sources of revenue). In a manual system of administration every increase in enrollment of a hundred students may require another clerk. In an automated system such growth can be accommodated simply by running the machine a few minutes longer.

The automated system, although it generates much information, is in the form of coded reports which few of the decision-making managers really find helpful. If they understand the reports, it is found that a variation of the data is needed. This need for changed format on reports indicates that the computers as used today are so programmed that changes needed to provide information in different forms are expensive and very time consuming. Improved technology is now permitting a system design which can provide for management the information that is needed in the format necessary and at the proper time so that good decisions can be made by using factual information rather than a system which provides a few facts and a lot of judgment for the decision-making process.

Emerging today is a new technique, called "Management Information Systems," of which new presidents should be aware. It will greatly increase the effectiveness of top managers to cope with the increasing pressures from all sources for factual and timely information to support needs and actions.

The bottom portion of the diagram (p. 108) indicates some of the data-processing applications that a typical college has successfully developed. All of these areas have been converted one by one to data-processing equipment. As a class, these applications have provided the capability of processing the massive volume of accounting transactions of colleges, producing, as a result, reports scheduled to some predetermined cycle. Historical record keeping is not the only emphasis needed; there should be an emphasis on providing the reports "as required" on a demand basis. The arrows pointing toward the center sector of the diagram indicate that the same information data obtained for routine accounting transactions can be selected and transformed for management control purposes. At a higher level of management usage there is an opportunity to use the same transaction data base for policy-making decision-makers as well as for the control management level.

As the focus of technological interest comes to bear on MIS, a greater emphasis will be placed on the employment of management-science techniques, e.g., usage of the computer in a scientific approach to business problem solving.

ERVIN L. HARLACHER

THE PRESIDENT, THE COMMUNITY, AND COMMUNITY SERVICES

In this report, I shall attempt to define the *community dimension*, I shall submit five propositions concerning the nature and scope of the community dimension, and I shall illustrate my remarks with a few examples from the study which I completed earlier this year for the American Association of Junior Colleges.[1]

While the full potential of the program of community services has not yet been realized by all institutions, there is reason to believe that the next great thrust of the community college development will be in the direction of community services. The American Association of Junior Colleges, therefore, authorized the study of community services during the summer and fall of 1967. I visited thirty-seven community college districts in thirteen states, representing the small and the large, the rich and the poor, and the urban and the rural community colleges. I corresponded with administrators of twenty-eight additional college districts in twelve states, with trustees and presidents of newly organized community college districts, and with officials of state agencies concerned with the governance of community colleges. The sixty-five community college districts participating in the study operate 104 college campuses in nineteen different states.

FIVE PROPOSITIONS

Proposition One: Not All Junior Colleges Are Community Colleges

1) From its very beginnings, the American junior college assumed the responsibility for providing all persons desiring it with the necessary knowledge to live a fuller, more productive life in a democratic society.

2) It had no intention of repeating the history of the universities and rejected the traditional definition of higher education set forth when the University of Berlin was founded less than two hundred years ago:

> . . . a society of teachers and students existing not one for the other but both for the sake of scholarship; a society sufficiently insulated from the world to be able to live according to its inner logic; whose members seek intellectual solitude and are given the freedom without having to participate, to criticize without having to reform.[2]

3) Recognizing that its services could best be utilized only if it were integrated into the community, the junior college accepted its responsibility to be aware of what was going on in the world of business and industry, as well as the realm of

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[1] Ervin L. Harlacher, "The Community Dimension of the Community College," Report to the American Association of Junior Colleges, November 1967.

[2] Sir Eric Asby, "Higher Education in Tomorrow's World," University of Michigan Sesquicentennial, April 26–29, 1967.

speculative thought and abstract research. With Plato, it realized that "States are made, not from rocks and trees, but from the character of their citizens . . ." and it sought to help mold the character of its citizens within its surrounding community.

4) That purpose grew stronger with each passing year; until the last two and one-half decades, however, the ideal of reaching the entire community fell short of realization. Even today not all junior colleges are community colleges.

5) Writers frequently contrast the program of a "junior college" to a program of a "community college," recognizing that the two terms are not synonymous. Junior college is a term to describe an institution that primarily duplicates organizationally and fulfills philosophically the first two years of the four-year senior college. On the other hand, a true community college connotes an institution which has changed from an isolated entity to an institution seeking full partnership with its community. In the process, the community college became for its district community a cultural center, a focal point of intellectual life, a source of solidarity, and a fount of local pride.

6) James Thornton has characterized the evolution of the community college in three stages which are related to the major purposes or functions of the institution. The first two stages he refers to as "education for transfer" (1850–1920) and expansion of "occupational programs" (1920–1945), respectively. The third stage, beginning in approximately 1945, he labels the "community college concept" and he explains that although the addition of occupational curriculums gave the junior college a new complexion, it still has not achieved its full stature as a community college. "This development required the further addition of adult education and community services."[3]

7) The original idea of the community college was one that involved a "grass roots" approach. In theory, at least, everyone connected with such an institution would look around, find educational gaps, and help fill them. The community college faculty and staff—teachers and doers in the broadest possible sense—would undertake to solve human problems in the community around them and point out needs that other educational groups in the community might meet.

Proposition Two: The Program of a Community College May Be Conceptualized in Two Dimensions—Formal Education and Informal Education

1) Through its formal dimension, sometimes characterized as schooling, the community college provides transfer (preparation for advanced study), occupational, general education, and guidance and counseling programs for youth and adults enrolled in regularly scheduled day and evening classes on the campus.

2) But it is through its community dimension (program of community services) that the junior college truly becomes a community college. The community college is dedicated to the proposition that, important as are formalized curricula offered for youth and adults within its classrooms, informal education provided on a continuous basis throughout the community for all of the rest of the people is of equal importance in building the character of the citizens who make up the state.

3) Chancellor Samuel B. Gould of the State University of New York has underscored the importance of this dimension of informal education:

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[3] James W. Thornton, Jr., *The Community Junior College* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1960), pp. 46–53.

> It is my conviction that a college, in addition to its more readily accepted intellectual dimension, should have the dimension of community that offers a place for the general life enrichment of all who live near by: young and old, artisan and farmer and member of a profession, college graduate and comparatively unskilled. Thus many of the gaps or weaknesses that the new pressures of numbers are bound to create in formal education can be filled or strengthened as a college opens its doors and its resources to all in a friendly and informal fashion, without thought of credits or degrees or anything more than to assist in the burgeoning of understanding in the individual as a member of the personal, physical, political, economic, artistic and spiritual world.[4]

4) The philosophy that the community college campus encompasses the length and breadth of the college district and that the total population of the district is its student body, makes it possible for the community college, in a massive and untraditional way, to broaden the base for higher education, to ease the problems of access to higher education by taking the college to the people, and to free itself from the traditional image of the American college and university which sees college primarily, if not entirely, as an institution concerned with educating youth.

5) Looking beyond its classrooms and campus, the community college can mean some education for almost everyone, not only for youngsters just out of high school but also for citizens who received their terminal education some years ago, perhaps from a four-year college, and are not interested in further degrees or credits. The community college is responsive to the changing needs of all segments of its populations; it can offer almost everyone the means to raise not just their standard of living, but their "standard of life." Since the community college aims at the whole person in a whole community, it sees no one as being unworthy because of his present level of development, his ideas, or his current status within the culture.

6) The community college is concerned about the general education of all of the citizens of its district community. Through the community dimension it is possible for the first time in history for all members of the community to have educational opportunity at their doorstep. The community college's unique qualities have given it a most significant role to play in community decision making. As the "people's college," the community college recognizes that a democratic nation, if it is to survive and flourish, must have an informed and responsible electorate. The progress of the U.S. as a dynamic and free society is due in part to the fact that we have provided more educational opportunities of more kinds for more people than any other nation in the world.

7) Through its community dimension, the community college provides opportunities for raising the cultural level of citizens, the betterment of occupational status, the development of community leadership, and an educational climate in which the citizen can develop his full potential.

Proposition Three: Learning Has Always Taken Place throughout Life, Independent of Any Particular Educational Structure

1) While the addition of community services has revolutionized the role of the community college, informal education is actually as old as Socrates—possibly older. Socrates first exemplified it by taking his wisdom into the streets and the

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[4] Samuel B. Gould, "Whose Goals for Higher Education?" Fiftieth Annual Meeting, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., October 12, 1967.

marketplace and there creating a student community representative of the people and actively concerned with the social and moral issues of the time.

2) The concept was reflected in Plato's *Republic*, which described an ideal community in which all people would receive proper education for their respective positions. It was carried forward by Aristotle, teaching Athenian youth in the shaded walks of the lyceum. And the same concept is clearly evident in the teachings of Jesus and His disciples, who wandered from place to place sharing with the multitudes the new philosophy.

3) The concept can be seen at work in the universities of the Middle Ages to which young men came from all walks of life. Such were the men who "fashioned the mind of the Middle Ages"—"clerks," whose purpose it was to administer community services to the commonalty through the dissemination of their own learning to any who would listen. Although instruction remained without the benefit of organized course work, universities did advance the principle of education for all who would join their student communities, and the university remained intimately tied up with the life and society of which they had become a part.

4) In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, when the university was not rooted in one location but represented the community of scholars, we find some of the most brilliant years in university history.

5) By the eighteenth century, however, the idea of providing higher education for all the people had been abandoned, and the universities became storehouses for factual knowledge and retreats for the idle rich or select few. The universities of western Europe had sunk into what Robert Hutchins called "a deep torpor from which they would not awaken for more than one hundred and fifty years."[5] Nor could "old universities" in America, patterned after their European sister institutions, satisfy the requirements of the "new age" in the New World.

6) The first step toward providing such services was taken in 1826 by Josiah Holbrook when he established the American Lyceum, dedicated to the principle of citizen participation and community development, the importance of a community climate of problem solving on a face-to-face basis, and the utilization of educational resources to solve practical problems. In later years, after the Lyceum died out, the Chautauqua, initiated in 1874, carried forward the Lyceum "spirit" and became a symbol of education and culture until its peak in 1924.[6]

7) Another step in the development of community services was the establishment of agricultural extension as a function of American universities under the Morrill and Smith–Lever Acts. The philosophy of agricultural extension focused on "helping people to help themselves."

8) And there seems to be little doubt that the community school concept in the public schools and the community development concept in the four-year institutions of higher learning had profound influence on the development of the community college and its community services function.

Proposition Four: Education Is a Continuous and Total Process Requiring Both Formal and Informal Experiences

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[5] Robert M. Hutchins, *The Conflict in Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953), p. 97.

[6] Bertis L. Jones, "The History of Community Development in American Universities with Particular Reference to Four Selected Institutions" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1961), pp. 329–332.

1) Prior to the present generation, it was possible for a person to attend a system of formalized education during his youth and learn enough about the nature of man and his environment to develop sufficient personal and civic competence to last a lifetime. This is no longer true. He must continually return to school or have school come to him, to keep up with the new "knowledge."

2) The second half of the twentieth century—a time of vast explosion of inventions, ideas, and production, with men seeking emotional and imaginative fulfillment—demands leadership by educators. We cannot sit passively and react belatedly to the pressures of educating the "masses" or "unwashed" or "downtrodden" or "disadvantaged" or whatever the fashionable term seems to be at the moment, for the times seem to be ripe for the impatient to bypass an educational process that has no relevance. I subscribe wholeheartedly to Michael Harrington's statement that

> America, whether it likes it or not, cannot sell its social conscience to the highest bidder. It must build new institutions of democratic planning which can make the uneconomic, commercially wasteful and humane decisions about education and urban living which this society so desperately needs.[7]

3) College is no longer for the young alone. And educational programs must not be limited to formalized on-campus classroom instruction. Community services must be designed to serve all age groups: professionals and those in search of professions; executives and workers aspiring to become executives, the disadvantaged who have been denied higher education because of race or color or inability to qualify; housewives and husbands, children and high-school-age youth.

4) Education must be a greater part of community living rather than a super element. It must utilize all community facilities as the environment for learning. This trend can perhaps best be seen in the "Educational Plan for Atomia," which proposes an integrated educational, recreational, and cultural program for citizens of all ages in the community. Financed by a special tax collected from all the residents, the program is similar in nature and scope to programs of community services in California junior college districts. The educational plan would combine modern technology of telecommunications in all forms with programming instruction. Home study would be possible through self-instructional packages and two-way communication terminals or consoles at the household level.[8]

5) If our major concern is to increase the capacity of the individual to learn throughout life, then an entirely different attitude is needed toward conditions and buildings under which learning can best take place.

a) The community college campus is essentially "vertical." It is "stacked" somewhere in the district for those who can transport themselves and partake of its services. Higher education has been "vertical" since Roman days. Higher education today and especially community college education should be horizontal.

b) Educational structures have been built on a standard notion that people must be protected from the elements pleasantly, and that large numbers will have to circulate periodically within the structure.

c) Any modifications have come only through imaginative use of spaces, materials, and instructional technology.

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[7] Michael Harrington, "Taking a Great Society Seriously," *Harper's*, CCXXXIII (Dec. 1966), 43–49.

[8] John E. Tirrell, and Albert A. Canfield, "Educational Plan for Atomia," School Facilities Council Conference, Rice University, July 19, 1967.

d) The formality and rigidity of these structures fly in the face of change.

Proposition Five: The Community College in Implementing Its Full Community Dimension Will Break, Once and For All, the Lock Step of Tradition, I.E., College Is Four Walls, College Is Semester-Length Courses; College Is Credit; College Is Culturally and Educationally Elite

1) In its most significant role, the program of community services constitutes what might be called Operation Outreach. Peter S. Mousolite has suggested that "We emulate the English Minstrel, the French Jongleur, the Spanish Trovador, the Chautauqua enterprise so popular not so many years ago" and, through the use of mobile units, move out into the community and create the program there.[9] An exploding body of knowledge cannot be walled in by tradition if it is to be transmitted effectively.

2) English architect Cedric Price has proposed a 20,000-student campus in North Staffordshire to be built around the local and national communications network. His "Think-belt" will exploit modern electronic communications systems and equipment and make use of mobile and variable physical enclosures (railway carriage lecture rooms, for instance).[10]

3) Joan Littlewood has proposed to create in London a university of the street. As a foretaste of the pleasures of 1984, her "Fun Palace" will feature a fun arcade with psychological and scientific games and tests, with knowledge piped through juke boxes; musical programs for everyone, including free instruction; a "science playground" supported by teaching films, closed circuit television and working models; and an acting area affording men and women from the factories, shops, and offices the therapy of theatre.[11]

4) Outreach Centers will join all segments of the college community to the college and to each other and foster a free exchange of ideas and resources. They will foster communication: community dialogue; and dialogue for a community college is mandatory. The community college cannot be isolated and inaccessible, whether physical or by attitude. Commenting on the solution of human problems, Robert Hutchins said in 1963 that he used to think that human problems could be treated like scientific problems—"you got the facts, you tested your hypothesis against the facts, and then you had the only possible answer." This "simple-minded carryover from science," he continued, has done more to retard the development of the human race in the last hundred years than anything else: "I have come to believe that as far as human problems are concerned, the important point is the community, the communal attack on problems, the communication among people. The kind of civilization you're trying to achieve is a civilization of the dialogue . . ." Examples of Outreach Centers include extension centers, empty stores, churches, schools, libraries, museums, art galleries, places of business, and other community facilities.

a) *Extension centers:* Pasadena City College in California offers short courses, lectures, and forums in sixty-five different sites in every part of the college district. One hundred and seventy-five airmen are enrolled in an associate degree program offered entirely at the local air force base by Miami-Dade Junior College in Florida. The College of San Mateo in California has organized three "islands of community cooperation" and is in the process of developing a fourth. In the program, the college joins with the local organizations and uses community facilities, including church sanctuaries, to sponsor programs of local interest and concern. St. Petersburg Junior College in Florida has developed effective home discussion groups. The groups, ranging in size from twelve to fifteen persons, meet on a semi-monthly basis in private homes throughout the college district. And Oakland Community College in Michigan offers eighty college credit and noncredit courses in twenty-nine different centers in the 900-square-mile college district.

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[9] Peter S. Mousolite, "The Edge of the Chair," National Conference on Vocational and Technical Education, Chicago, May 16, 1967.

[10] Cedric Price, "Potteries Thinkbelt," *New Society,* June 2, 1966.

[11] Joan Littlewood, "A Laboratory of Fun," *New Scientist,* XXII, 432–433.

b) *In-plant training:* Perhaps the most extensive in-plant training program in the country is operated by New York City Community College, resulting in pre-training or in-service training for 180 newly appointed building inspectors, 300 building inspectors, 320 dietary aides from 18 hospitals, 1,000 nurses' aides, and 700 municipal employees. Top management training courses conducted by El Centro College in Texas for a Dallas Hospital, including basic management, work simplification, problem solving and goal setting, reportedly saved the hospital $750,000 in operating costs during the first year. And the in-service training program developed for federal employees by Cuyahoga Community College in Cleveland, Ohio, is expected to attract some five hundred initially, with the federal government paying tuition.

5) The use of mobile structures, in addition to the permanent campuses, will permit the community college to be everywhere within the college district or service area. Thus, the community college will be able to move its physical location in response to shifting needs.

a) Hudson Valley Community College in New York last summer utilized effectively an Opportunity Van in two disadvantaged Albany neighborhoods, recruiting students for its Urban Center.

b) Another excellent example is the community science Outreach Program being developed by Oakland Community College in Michigan, in cooperation with a local institute of science, and featuring mobile exhibits and demonstrations, traveling museums and short courses.

6) The community college can no longer be guided by the standard curriculum practices of academically oriented institutions. Educational offerings must be flexible to meet special needs, regardless of hour of day, confines of semester, or granting of so-called college credit.

a) *Short courses:* The center for community educational services established by the State University of New York Agricultural and Technical College at Farmingdale offered 720 workshops, seminars, institutes and conferences last year, accommodating 32,000 persons. Since 1940, Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College in Georgia has offered 743 short courses for 98,699 farmers, stressing the latest techniques in farming and related fields. Milwaukee Institute of Technology, in its institute and clinic program last year, presented 127 short courses to 31,160 persons. These institutes were cosponsored by seventy-nine Milwaukee area organizations.

b) *Meeting community needs:* "The Destroyers," a forum on illegal drug traffic, sponsored by Cerritos College in California in cooperation with fourteen local school districts, resulted in a change in the curriculum for the fifth and sixth grades of the college district.

c) *Workshops, institutes, conferences:* Westark Junior College in Arkansas sponsored three seminars when inner-city bus service in the community was threatened for the first time in twenty-five years. As a result of the community dialogue which followed the seminars, bus service was preserved.

d) *Physical activities:* Cerritos College in California has developed an imaginative summer recreation program including activities in aquatics, fine arts, and sports. The program is staged throughout the college district, utilizing all community as well as college facilities, and the planning and scheduling of the co-sponsored activities is shared by personnel from all recreational agencies and school districts in the college district. Last summer more than 110,000 persons participated in the program.

7) Greater diversification of media will permit the community college to better meet the highly diversified needs of the total community. Community colleges find the method-media mix appropriate for one group of students to be totally inappropriate for another. For example, the needs of employed adults cannot be met in the same way as the needs of eighteen- and nineteen-year-old full-time students. Examples of diversification of media include telecommunications; seminars and symposiums; performing groups; self-instructional packages; educational and cultural tours; workshops and conferences; recreational activities; counseling and consultative services; research and planning; science experiments and exhibitions; facility usage; leadership, coordination, and advisory assistance; public lectures; and fine arts events.

a) *Telecommunications:* Chicago City College's TV College, on the air approximately twenty-six hours a week since 1956, has permitted 100,000 persons to take seventy different credit and noncredit courses in their homes. Using FM radio, Long Beach City College in California serves 100,000 kindergarten through twelfth-grade students of the Long Beach unified school district. In order to provide educational opportunities in five outlying areas of its 2600-square-mile district, Los Rios Junior College District in California is developing the concept of Little Red Electronic Schoolhouses, equipping the one-room facilities with thirty carrels for audio-tutorial study.

b) *Community leadership:* In order to give maximum service to the community, Abraham Baldwin College initiated Project SURGE (Systematic Utilization of Resources for Growth and Efficiency) for Tifton and Tift County in 1964. The project involved fourteen committees, representing every aspect of community life, and an annual "town hall" meeting. A most unusual training program for the occupants of an apartment house in the inner-city section of Oakland, California, is being developed by the Peralta Colleges. The training program is to be conducted in the 140-unit apartment house and would include a series of short courses on budgeting, management, planning, and recreation for the purpose of preparing the residents to ultimately take over the management of the apartment house as a cooperative.

c) *Community counseling:* Cuyahoga Community College's project SEARCH for the culturally disadvantaged of the Hough section of Cleveland features a counseling center to help individuals identify realistic educational and vocational goals for themselves. North Florida Junior College provided the leadership for the development of an area guidance center, where twenty counselors serve elementary schools, high schools, and junior colleges in the six rural counties by providing 115 hours of guidance time daily. Rockland Community College in New York, through its New York Guidance Center for Women, in the first year served 365 clients in counseling and testing. An additional 175 persons received service from the library or other information services.

d) *Institutional synergism:* Illustrative of this term is the concept of the "Health and Education Campus" being developed by Essex Community College in Maryland, the Franklin Square Hospital, and the Baltimore County Health Department, and featuring the sharing of physical facilities in human resources, the joint development of paramedical curriculums, and the development of continuing education programs for patients and the community through television. Rockland Community College is developing a college library as a strong community-serving central reference and research library to complement existing library services in the county and a media center capable of sending programs to all schools in the county. Hudson Valley Community College in New York set up a community health planning agency and gained the cooperation of two other colleges, three local hospitals, the county medical society, a research institution, and a number of leading industries and individuals. The health services of the Rensselaer Area, Inc. is now in the process of making a community health profile.

8) As the "vehicle of social change and advance," the community college will provide informal education to broaden the community's educational base and tap a potential reservoir of knowledge, manpower, and experiences not presently utilized.

a) *Programs for disadvantaged:* The Peralta Colleges in California are developing an extensive program for the culturally disadvantaged who remain in the inner city which features a student service corps, community development centers offering educational and counseling services, a cultural-enrichment program, and a scholarship-assistance program. Cabrillo College and San Jose City College in California have developed tutoring programs for Mexican-American and Negro children. Sixty children participated in the six-week program at Cabrillo, which included the services of twenty-seven college students and thirteen adults in three different centers. The purpose of the Urban Center administered by New York City Community College is to help prepare high school graduates in the lower quartile of the graduating class for job training and placement. Five programs include office skills, secretarial science, drafting, business-machine repair, and college adapter. Last fall 396 students participated in programs running from six months to a year.

b) *Human resource development:* Some 1,100 adults and young adults are enrolled in the East Bay Skill Center, funded under MDTA and operated by Laney College in California. This program represents a massive effort in skill training for culturally disadvantaged and educationally deprived students.

CONCLUSION

I have submitted for your consideration, five propositions relative to the community dimension of the community college:

1. Not all junior colleges are community colleges.
2. The program of a community college may be conceptualized in two dimensions—formal and informal education.
3. Learning has always taken place throughout life, independent of any particular educational structure.
4. Education is a continuous and total process requiring both formal and informal experiences.
5. In implementing its full community dimension, the community college will break, once and for all, the lock-step of tradition, i.e., college is four walls, college is semester-length courses; college is credit; college is culturally and educationally elite.

It seems inevitable that the community college will place even greater emphasis on the community dimension in the decade ahead. The community college will demonstrate to an extent even greater than it has to date that college is where the people are and that community services are designed to take the college program out into the community as well as bring the community to the college.

I would like to challenge each of you—as new presidents of new community colleges throughout the country—to join me in creating in each respective college districts a college campus which is the length and breadth of the district community or service area.

JOHN E. ROUECHE

THE PRESIDENT AND INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

Today we live in an "age of research." American business and industry spend billions of dollars each year on "consumer research" and "new product research," and we are told that more than half the consumer goods available today were not even on the drawing boards two decades ago. The American industrial enterprise is totally committed to research.

Even aspiring politicians are "research oriented," as they base each move on some pollster's indication of how it will be received by the American public. States and municipalities are also sponsors of research as they endeavor to project future population growth and the diverse services required by such growth. The United States government spends billions of research dollars—with agencies ranging from NASA to the Department of Defense. We are a nation committed to research.

In his book, *Science: The Glorious Entertainment,* Jacques Barzun comments on the American preoccupation with research:

> History records no precedent to this extraordinary adulation of research unless it be that of the Middle Ages to pilgrimage. When it prevailed, I doubt if anyone who was impelled to save his soul by going to a distant shrine was ever restrained by his friends. He would take off his shoes, pick up his stick, and go forth with everyone's blessing, just as today the research-bent abandons his occupation, picks up a box of index cards, and is on his way with shining eyes and a two-year grant amid general admiration. The very phrase "do research" shows that it is the act, not the goal, that matters; and though not many think of research as saving their souls, society at large does believe that there is salvation in it.[1]

While Barzun may doubt that research will save education, most educators appear to be on the side of "society at large" in believing that there is "salvation in it."[2] Illustrative of this point is the news that the Bureau of the Budget has approved and recommended to Congress a record budget request for $142 million for USOE-sponsored research. This figure represents a 57 percent increase over the 1968 appropriation. The U.S. Office of Education has a long-range commitment to educational research and development.[3]

From a review of recent literature on the subject, one may conclude that the importance of research at the institutional level in American colleges and universities is becoming generally apparent and recognized. In fact, institutional research has developed a literature of its own and has acquired a new professional organization, the Association for Institutional Research, which now has several hundred members.[4]

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[1] Jacques Barzun, *Science: The Glorious Entertainment* (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), pp. 120–121.

[2] K. Patricia Cross. "When Will Research Improve Education?" *The Research Reporter,* II, No. 4 (1967).

[3] *Educational Researcher,* No. 4 (1968), 1.

However, neither our society's concern with "research" nor the vast sums being expended by the U.S. Office of Education have seriously affected educational practices at the institutional level. For example, a study made in 1958–59 found that only about one-fifth of the land-grant colleges and state universities had full-time coordinators of institutional research.[5] Institutional research in the junior college is even more recent.

A 1968 survey of institutional research in American junior colleges found that the average junior college completes one institutional research study per year. Only 23 percent of the institutions surveyed in 1968 had personnel employed to coordinate institutional research. In 39 percent of the institutions no regular staff member was assigned responsibility for coordinating institutional studies. The overwhelming majority of American junior colleges use criteria other than the findings of institutional research to chart their future and to evaluate their present endeavors.[6]

WHAT IS INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH?

Typically, institutional research is directed toward the important problems of the individual institution, but there is a tendency to assign to the research officer the responsibility for answering all questionnaires and compiling statistical reports. *The mere compilation of readily available data cannot be labeled "institutional research."* Similarly, institutional research offices are often designated responsibility for procuring federal funds (writing proposals) for various institutional programs. Only on rare occasions does this activity bear any resemblance to institutional research. While these tasks might properly be under the aegis of the research director, they are no substitute for genuine research activity.

Institutional research is problem oriented and can be just as specific and practical, or general and theoretical, as the competence of the researcher allows.[7] By definition, institutional research consists of those systematic and organized fact-finding activities within a collegiate institution focused upon current problems and issues with institutional improvement as the anticipated outcome.[8] Brumbaugh has described it as "research designed to improve institutions of higher learning." He states that the key to effective administration is the ability of the college president and his staff to ask the right questions and to find the right answers, a process that inevitably must take into account all the relevant and factual data that only institutional research can provide. He cites areas in policy formulation, planning, administration, and evaluation where the use of research findings is indispensable.[9]

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[4] Henry S. Dyer, "Can Institutional Research Lead to a Science of Institutions?" *The Educational Record*, XLVII, No. 4 (Feb. 1966), 452–466.

[5] W. Hugh Stickler, *Institutional Research Concerning Land-Grant Institutions and Universities* (Tallahassee: Florida State University, 1959).

[6] John E. Roueche and John R. Boggs, *Junior College Institutional Research: The State of the Art* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968).

[7] John E. Anderson, Jr., "Research in the Junior College: Anathema or Anodyne?" *Junior College Journal*, XXXV (Nov. 1964), 15–16.

[8] Raymond Young, "A Review of Related Literature and Its Implications for Research in Junior College Student Personnel Programs," *Conference to Plan Research on Junior College Student Personnel Programs*, (Flint, Mich.: Flint Community Junior College, 1964).

[9] A. J. Brumbaugh, *Research Designed to Improve Institutions of Higher Learning* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, Office of Statistical Information and Research, 1960).

Stickler has defined institutional research as research that is directed toward providing data useful or necessary in the making of intelligent administrative decisions and/or for the successful maintenance, operation, and/or improvement of a given collegiate institution.[10] All studies that an institution makes about itself in order to improve the institution or any part of its operation may be defined as institutional research.[11] While there is probably no intent in these definitions to minimize the importance of basic research, the practitioner is concerned with "action."[12] Institutional research is usually "applied" or "operations" research, for it is concerned primarily with solutions to the current or impending problems of the institution; it grows out of the need for data to make intelligent and objective decisions regarding immediate or anticipated problems.[13]

The need for institutional research is as important and urgent in the junior college as it is in the four-year institution. While each collegiate institution is unique, all must determine and develop educational programs, provide for fiscal responsibilities, and be aware of changing student needs. All institutions must plan to accommodate both short- and long-range programs, to study the staffing needs of the institution, and to meet the changing needs of society.[14] Continuous attention must be given to the instructional staff, facilities, library, and other instructional areas, as well as to student personnel services and activities. Administrators must always be aware of the financial support of the college, of the effectiveness of their administration, and of their duties of liaison between the college and the community. In brief, a rationale for institutional research can be found in every aspect of the two-year college's operation.[15]

Institutional research may be called successful if it has some effect on institutional practice. For example, Golden West College conducted research to determine whether audio-tutorial instruction proved as effective as traditional approaches to the teaching of biology. After finding a 33 to 50 percent increase in course content, a 66 percent decrease of failure and class dropout rates, and a tripling in the number of A grades, the college had empirical data to support its experiment with this new instructional approach.[16] At Los Angeles City College, institutional research showed that low-achieving students in remedial programs did not persist in college for more than one semester.[17] Remedial courses were not remediating; therefore, the emphasis and content of the program were changed.[18] In these two schools research resulted in program modifications and served as the vehicle for curricula and instructional changes.

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[10] W. Hugh Stickler, "The Expanding Role of Institutional Research in American Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal,* XXXI (May 1961), 542–548.

[11] John E. Roueche, "Gaps and Overlaps in Institutional Research," *Junior College Journal,* XXXVIII (Nov. 1967), 20–23.

[12] John Dale Russell, "The Purpose and Organization of Institutional Research," *College Self-Study: Lectures on Institutional Research* (Boulder, Colo.: The Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1960).

[13] W. Hugh Stickler, "Some Suggestions Concerning Institutional Research," *Institutional Research Bases for Administrative Decision-Making* (Tallahassee: Florida State University, 1965).

[14] Stuart E. Marsee, "A President's View of Institutional Research," *Junior College Journal,* XXXV (May 1965), 24–25.

[15] Lewis B. Mayhew, "Keynote Address," *Institutional Research in the Junior College: Process and Product* (Sacramento: California Junior College Association, 1965).

[16] R. Dudley Boyce, "Toward Innovation: The Golden West College Story" (Huntington Beach, Calif.: Golden West College, 1967), p. 20.

[17] Roueche, "Gaps and Overlaps in Institutional Research," pp. 20–23.

[18] Edwin A. Young, *An Experimental Program for "Low-Ability" Students (Second Progress Report),* (Los Angeles: Los Angeles City College, 1966).

Institutional research fails when its findings are not applied to institutional practice.[19] For example, all available research indicates that junior college remedial programs do not achieve their primary objective of remediating student deficiencies; yet, almost every two-year institution talks about its remedial program in terms of "salvaging human resources" or "democratizing higher education." In general, research has not affected practice in this critical instructional area. Junior colleges are aware that standardized test scores are often inappropriate for placing low-achieving students in certain curricular areas (such as technical, vocational, or remedial), yet institutions continue to use the same old inappropriate data. Research that does not affect institutional practice is ineffective and fails.

BARRIERS TO RESEARCH

The 1968 survey of American junior colleges identified many shibboleths as to why junior colleges do not participate in institutional research. Briefly stated, they are institutional age, sufficient financial support, institutional size, and shortage of qualified personnel.[20] Some newly established junior colleges claim that they do not engage in the practice because they are "too young" to have begun institutional research. On the other hand, older, established institutions maintain they have already "crossed most of their educational bridges." Neither point of view holds much validity. The national survey indicates that institutional age is in no way related to the college's commitment to research. Young and old institutions alike must make educational decisions regularly, and institutional age is neither a help nor a hindrance to the process.

Almost everyone who has written on the subject of institutional research pleads for "sufficient financial support." Some have suggested 3 to 5 percent of the institutional budget as a good amount to plan for an on-going program of institutional research.[21] Yet, an abundance of money and sophisticated data-processing equipment does not of itself guarantee successful institutional research.

In both small and large junior colleges good research programs (with little budgetary support) can be found. The president does not need a separate budget item for institutional research to get research done. The 1968 study found that expenditures do not necessarily relate to better research. Helpful as it may be, money is *not* the most essential ingredient in a good institutional research program.

Although some large junior colleges operate offices of institutional research staffed with full-time personnel, their endeavors cannot be called "successful" in terms of the previous definition of "success." It is true that such colleges often compile elaborate, well-bound data reports—but typically these data have little significance or value in or out of the college. The mere compilation of data does not constitute institutional research. Data collection may be construed as research activity if the data are being gathered "to provide the answers to the right questions." But questions and data must be coordinated in the research design. If the president is asking the right questions, the odds are pretty good that the answers will be found, with or without funds and/or equipment.

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[19] Lewis B. Mayhew, "Organization and Administration of Institutional Research," *Institutional Research in the Junior College* (Los Angeles: University of California, Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 3, 1962).

[20] Roueche and Boggs, *Institutional Research.*

[21] Mayhew, "Keynote Address."

Another misconception is that regarding the shortage of qualified personnel. Many institutions allege they do not engage in research because they do not have "trained research workers on their staff." However, if he tries, the president can find someone on his staff to accept responsibility for this most important educational function. In the present survey, presidents identified counselors, deans of admissions, registrars, and deans of students as being responsible for institutional research in their institutions. While most institutions do not have staff members with graduate degrees in educational research, almost every junior college in the nation has faculty members in mathematics, economics, or the physical and behavioral sciences who are more than qualified to research basic institutional problems. These faculty members can provide helpful suggestions on study design, data-collection techniques, data-treatment procedures and the appropriate interpretations of findings. It does not take a highly sophisticated research staff to answer the "right questions." Practically every two-year college in America could develop a viable program of institutional research if it would just utilize the talents of its present faculty and administrative staff.

THE REINVENTION OF THE WHEEL

One of the most serious problems with junior college institutional research at present relates to the areas or subjects studied. For example, approximately half of all institutional research reports relate to the junior college student, and an overwhelming majority of these studies examine the success of the transfer student. These institutional investigations inevitably seem to lead to the conclusion that:

1) Students who enter junior colleges and eventually transfer to senior institutions typically experience a lower grade-point average during the first semester following transfer.
2) In most cases, the transfer students' grades recover from the loss which occurs during the first semester.
3) Grade-point averages of transfers improve with each successive semester in which they are enrolled at the senior institution.
4) The transfer student who does graduate may take longer to reach the baccalaureate than does a comparable native student.

These research findings tend to corroborate conclusions of national studies on the transfer student and to reinforce research data going as far back as 1928.[22]

It appears that junior colleges (like other educational institutions) do not profit from the research of others. The same old question prevails: "How well do our transfer students do at the university?" Junior colleges claim to be multi-purpose comprehensive institutions, yet the typical research study focuses on only one segment of the institution's students—those who transfer to four-year institutions.

It is important for all educational institutions to study their students, but the transfer student comprises only one-third of the community college's student body. There is little available research on junior college dropouts or on those who graduate from technical or vocational programs. Junior college institutional research is "hung up" with studies of transfer students.

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[22] Roueche, "Gaps and Overlaps in Institutional Research," pp. 20–23.

DISSEMINATION NEEDED

Perhaps junior colleges keep "reinventing the wheel" because they are unaware of the research findings and activities of others. In fact, the entire ERIC project was funded to fill a serious gap in the flow of information among schools or segments of the education community. The United States Office of Education moved into the field of information retrieval and dissemination when it realized that the millions of dollars invested in educational research in previous years had made little impact on practices in schools and colleges. The uncollated research findings and undisseminated reports of one college's procedural successes and failures naturally had had no effect on the decisions made by other educational institutions. Furthermore, college presidents and deans simply did not and do not have sufficient time to seek out answers from the flood of literatures engulfing the field.

The ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information has as one primary goal the dissemination of junior college institutional research findings. The Clearinghouse is designed to make research findings available quickly and in such form that they may be used in decision making in American junior and community colleges. How successful this dissemination can be depends upon the willingness of junior colleges to share their research successes and failures with the junior college community. The 1968 investigation indicates that many two-year colleges are engaging in some research activity, but that dissemination of findings is typically limited to the institution involved.

Every research study cannot end with unqualified success, but failures are just as significant and relevant to the junior college community. With the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, junior colleges have a means to provide for instant dissemination, but the Clearinghouse can make available only those materials that it receives. Junior college presidents can insure improved dissemination by making certain that copies of all institutional research reports are forwarded to the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information. Institutions can then take advantage of the research successes and failures of others, thereby mitigating the "reinvention" process.

THE PRESIDENT IS THE KEY

Before any institutional research can succeed in terms of the previous definition of success, the administration and faculty (but particularly the *president*) must ask the right questions and find the right answers. Mayhew defines the task as a "willingness to *use data and act on it*."[23] Other educational enterprises use research data much more consistently.

The lack of presidential interest does not always preclude faculty interest or involvement in institutional research. There are numerous examples of research that were designed and conducted by staff and faculty members without the president even being aware of the activity. Research can occur without presidential support.

As "successful" research has been defined, however, it is unlikely that research conducted without presidential support (or knowledge) will change existing practices. If the junior college president abrogates the responsibility of making his educational decisions as he finds the right answers to the right questions, little institutional research is likely to occur. Conversely, if the junior college president is committed to a strong program of institutional research, not only will the activity be supported, but it will also likely be successful. The old adage rings true: "If the president wants it to happen, it will."

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[23] Mayhew, "Keynote Address."

A FINAL WORD

It is axiomatic that people always find time and ways to do the things that are really important to them. This is especially true when one examines present junior college institutional research endeavors. Canfield offers a comparison of schools and hospitals to demonstrate this lack of concern for or commitment to improved practices.

> Schools are much like hospitals—both being characterized by the diagnosis, treatment, and evaluation of human needs, one for health and the other for education. Schools differ from hospitals in that every student gets essentially the same treatment method (lecture/textbook), and treatment failures are explained largely on the basis of student (patient) inadequacies. This is a little like saying that our treatments are fine but we keep getting the wrong patients (students). If medical men had failed to persistently research and evaluate their treatment for disease, "bleeding" could have persisted as a standard treatment routine.[24]

Institutional evaluation is the president's responsibility. Questions like "How well do our students like our schools?" and "How many of our students drop out each quarter and why?" are within his prerogative to ask. These, then, are examples of the right questions, and the president is the man who ultimately must ask them at his institution.

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[24] Albert A. Canfield, "Time for Instructional Research," *Junior College Research Review*, II (Dec. 1967).

Mrs. BARBARA W. MORGAN

MRS. PRESIDENT: ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES

If there is truth in the adage "In order to move up, you must move!" it can be easily seen that the wife of a two-year college president plays a key role in his progress up the educational ladder. Though it is true that the president might leave the wife behind, it is also true that if the president shed a wife each time he moved, it would soon require that the salary of the two-year college president be comparable to that of the president of General Motors just to pay the collective alimony. A personal credo helpful to more than one wife moving onward and upward with her administrator husband is that there is security in insecurity! This recognizes that plans and perspectives change overnight, but so long as this is understood, it can become, perhaps surprisingly, an acceptable frame of reference.

One immediate concern here is that the wife of a two-year college president had best be prepared for loneliness along with other requirements of her elevated status. The wife and husband are seldom alone—but often lonely.

HOMEWORK FOR THE WIFE IS NECESSARY

The roles and responsibilities of the first lady of a two-year college (and she will be referred to as the first lady whether she wishes to be or not or even if she is horrified by the seeming presumptuousness of that title) are diverse and, in many ways, seemingly conflicting, as she seeks to maintain balance and order for her home and self while supporting both husband and the college he serves. To succeed, it is imperative she understand something of the educational philosophy, purposes, and goals of the two-year college in general. It is equally imperative that she know what the specific college her husband heads is attempting to do. There is no short and easy way out of this prime responsibility. She must be able to answer basic questions about the college, and to represent it in many situations. There are some questions that should be answered honestly, with a simple "I don't know!" These are the inevitable questions stemming from bits of gossip which she must come quickly to recognize as a search for additional fuel for the gossip mill which exists in every college and which thrives on tidbits about the presidency.

The president's wife must be a student of the immediate social order surrounding the college. The two-year college has calculatedly set as its service area an immediate community, and it must stay close to and understand this community in order to function properly and successfully. This is not to suggest that the president's wife must be a social butterfly nor that she must work assiduously to be on every invitation list of importance. It is to state baldly that the wife will survey the area, seek the social and cultural character or flavor, and to try and understand the educational needs and aspirations the local people have for their young (which will not be measurably different than her own aspirations for her own children). This will help her to understand the situation in which the college is located and the challenges and problems facing her husband.

The wife of a new two-year college president will come quickly to know that the open-door philosophy has very little to do with the U.S. Department of State and the history of relations with China. She will also come quickly to realize that the two-year college is not just a downward extension of the four-year college, regardless of the aspirations of a good many of the academic faculty. Neither, however, is the college an upward extension of the high school.

Haste is made to caution those with experience in the community college. There can be bitter lessons learned in trying to transfer experiences directly from one college to another. What holds true at one college may have little, if any, value at any other two-year college. The specific community and the specific college must be studied. Past experience will help, but is not of itself a guarantee that the new situation will be understood.

The president's wife will know her husband; it is imperative also that she know the college he serves, and the college setting. She will then come to appreciate the applications by the president of a particular personal and professional philosophy to a two-year college.

A LOOK AT THE PRESIDENCY

In order to determine what a president's wife is, it will be necessary to determine what a president is. A two-year college president might be the director of an extension center of a university, the director of a vocational technical institute, the dean of a religious formation school, or perhaps have some other title. Typically, the president is called president. He is that person who has day-to-day control over the operations of a post-secondary school generally referred to as a two-year college.

The first thing a wife is advised to appreciate is the degree of exposure of her husband. Doubtless she will soon be made aware of this with the receipt of phone calls, not all pleasant, which disturb the tranquility of meals as well as her entire household. She will be unable to avoid the sight of her husband when he comes home pale and shaken after a long hard day or after a particularly difficult meeting with either the board or dissident faculty members. She will know immediately that he will be away from home many evenings, either at the office or out-of-town, representing the college. The exposure is not just physical, though it requires some considerable physical stamina. The president's wife must recognize, as does her husband, that the worst that can happen to them is to be ruined by reputation and discharged in the full glare of publicity from which neither the president nor his family can hide. The great strain placed on persons who have aspired to and risen to positions of responsibility may be regarded as too fierce, but it is a system designed to determine adequacy. The president's wife must give support, service, stability, and self to the college and her husband. The key role she occupies at the college is not all grim. It can be fun. Her position is always a challenge.

THE "POSITION" OF FIRST LADY

The part the president's lady plays in official college life will always be relative to the personality of her husband and herself. The president's wife is well advised to give some serious consideration to just what role she will play and to what responsibilities she will respond. The first lady occupies a real, if not an official, position relative to the college. The position is seen most easily in the field of representation of a formal nature. It is a most unfortunately advised or motivated president's wife who becomes involved in any other official aspect of her husband's job. There is, in fact, a dual life in that the "position" can never really be an official one, and yet it is a very important and influential one which she cannot ignore.

It is suggested that the most successful first ladies known and observed in the past were those who ultimately gave direction and had influence in such a fashion that the personalities of the women were never directly seen nor felt. This is *not* to suggest that the wife be a manipulator or schemer. It is to suggest that the wife must be discreet and diplomatic. She can do great harm and cause great hurt from her position. A real contribution can be made by the wife of a president if she chooses to do so and if she is able.

ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITY

The basic role of the wife might be broken into four major parts: (1) support; (2) service; (3) stability; (4) serenity.

By *support*, the first lady is called upon directly or indirectly to support the president. If it were not for the president's job, she would not have her "position" at the college. Support, then, is relative to the office of the president and to the college he serves. It suggests that the wife can contribute, if she will.

By *service* is meant the degree to which she can relate her interests to those of the presidency, the college, and the community. In many cases, this can be an extension of interests rather than a supplementation of them. This facet of the position can include extensive work with faculty wives and their particular projects. It can be with community service projects of a more unofficial nature, such as social agencies. There are almost limitless opportunities for worthwhile efforts merely by lending her name to worthwhile projects. Work with the Girl Scouts, 4-H, health drives, recreation programs, and many other customary avenues for service are open. Perhaps a greater contribution might be made in ghetto or slum work, but the president's wife is well advised not to undertake this kind of work in the spirit of "do-goodism." The days of acceptable paternalism in the ghetto have come to an end. The amount of time available for service work will reflect on the personality and desires of the first lady and will be in direct response to the size and needs of her family. It is, however addressed, a principal role for her to assume.

By *stability* is meant the effort to create a stable platform of support for her husband and family at a domestic level. Stability means a stable family, a stable home to which her husband can retire and in which her children can grow healthily, while all occupy the center stage of one of the most exposed positions in education.

By *serenity* is meant the amount of time she must devote to herself if she is to avoid becoming a drone or a part of the furniture. She may be caught up willingly or unwillingly in the drama of the two-year college movement and contribute to or complicate it, but regardless of the official side of her life she must have a personal side and a way in which to express her own personality. Furthermore, to the degree she can establish a serenity of self, it is more likely she will be intact and satisfied with herself and thus contribute as a wife, mother, and first lady.

DIRECT RELATIONS OF THE FIRST LADY WITH THE COLLEGE

The president's wife will have some nearly inescapable direct dealing with personnel at the college. Perhaps the most important of these is with the president's secretary. The secretary is a polished professional who can contribute enormously to the office of the presidency. The secretary can be called upon to help the wife on such matters as invitations to formal functions of the college, help in making up guest lists of people important to the president's calendar and position, or with telephone numbers of faculty and wives. Sometimes, regarding details of the president's calendar, the wife will need the president's secretary in order to make firm plans. It is good advice for the president's wife to open very cordial, very proper, very honest, and very friendly relations with this important member of the president's staff.

In response to a questionnaire asking wives of two-year college presidents certain opinions of their position, one wife noted that the first lady must keep "her ears open and her mouth shut." She will come to possess points of information, regarding personalities at the college, which she must protect.

A key area for the president's wife, whether she likes it or not, is contact with and a role of leadership in the faculty wive's association. She cannot avoid having an influence on the members, even if she ignores them completely. If she ignores them, this tells them a great deal about what life is going to be like under her husband's administration. (This topic will be covered more fully in discussing the survey on faculty wives later.) However, it is important to note that there are a number of worthwhile activities that faculty wives can engage in which are supportive of the college. They can offer punch and doughnuts for students at registration, they can raise money for scholarships or for gifts for the college, or they can provide refreshments at informal meetings.

Perhaps the touchiest contact with the college is one which is seldom talked about. It concerns relations among young instructors, their wives, and newly appointed administrators at the second-echelon level with members of the clerical staff. It is not known precisely just what the president's wife can or should do about this. But she should be aware that new instructors and particularly the wives of new instructors are wont, when they meet, to treat secretaries and clerks as though the latter were privates in the army and damn well ought to know who the lieutenants are i.e., faculty and faculty wives. This can lead to situations demeaning to young faculty wives without their knowing it, and it can be excruciatingly infuriating to the clerical staff. Perhaps one way to avoid this problem is to have the faculty wives and clerical staff come together in a social situation. One way is to drop the name "faculty wives" and call it "women of the college." This allows the organization to includes wives, female faculty, and female staff and administrators. This worked at one Oregon college. However, there will always be young faculty wives, ambitious for themselves and their husbands, who have painfully much to learn and who might need a slight hint here or there from the president's wife. Play this one cool. You can create more trouble than you prevent, otherwise.

A SURVEY

Wives of two-year college presidents were recently asked to respond to inquiries about their impressions of their own "positions" and that of the president.[1] In the paragraphs that follow, some of their responses will be reported.

The wives were asked what occupies most of the "official time" of the president's wife. Of the alternatives presented, the most frequently chosen were:

1. Official entertaining.
2. Community or volunteer work.
3. Faculty wives.

The most demanding, in terms of time required, were:

1. Community or volunteer work.
2. Official entertaining.
3. Faculty wives.

All time is "official," from buying groceries and attending teacher conferences for children to sitting in the front row at graduation. A president's wife in Arizona agreed by noting, "Your time is always official—selling the college by personal contact with many people just in normal everyday living." A respondent from Pennsylvania took issue with the alternatives presented by noting, "You don't mention the things which take up most of my time—among them some public relations, showing people around the college, and going to other affairs where our attendance is required—and you didn't say anything about listening to him [the president] make speeches, watching him on TV, going with him while he tapes broadcasts, or cutting out items about the college from the papers. These things take a lot of my time. I also try to do some background reading and research for him."

Though the alternative chosen most often as occupying most time was "community or volunteer work," one wife objected, by noting, "This is my own time and not college business!" One wife, from New York, noted wryly, "Do very little [community work]—use the college as an excuse!"

In response to the question of what part of being "first lady" they liked most, the wives suggested most often:

1. Being a part of something important.
2. The prestige, status, and pay.
3. Meeting new and interesting people and the travel.
4. Entertaining and official functions.

The other side of this question was what part of being "first lady" do you dislike the most. The leading responses were:

1. Entertaining, official functions and obligations.
2. Disrupted family life, waiting for husband.
3. Lack of privacy, "being on display."
4. No identity—"being the boss's wife."
5. Nothing is objectionable.

From Connecticut a wife noted her greatest dislike as "being the Holy Cow."

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[1] For a description of this survey, see the article "The Junior College President: Role and Responsibilities," by Don Morgan, which appears on an earlier page of this report.

From California came a note that the greatest dislike was "Smiling at faculty members I can't stand!"

Generally these two questions revealed the wives to be a bit schizophrenic about entertaining. Many listed official entertaining as why they like being "first lady" while nearly an equal number listed entertaining as why they disliked being "first lady." Entertainment led the list of dislikes.

In response to the question of what the wife of a newly elected president should do immediately after the president has arrived on campus, an answer from New York was, "*Nothing!* If she's not already prepared, she's lost. Above all, she must be herself and not worry too much about her 'position.' " Most frequent responses were:

1. Entertain the power structure: board, faculty, "important" people.
2. Get acquainted with community, college, and faculty.
3. Stay out of the way, do as told, and help!

The wives were asked what they best ought to do in the time between when the president was elected and when he arrived on the job. The leading responses were:

1. Become familiar with new situation.
2. Prepare for the new role.
3. Be herself, natural, and calm.
4. Promote husband's security, do as told.
5. Stay in background.

Other suggestions were: "Prepare to listen a lot. Learn to have patience with late meals. Read Amy Vanderbilt again." "Prepare to say 'No!' sometimes. You'll probably be asked to join many clubs. You can't join all and do a good job." "Find a responsible person to care for children while traveling with husband. If you feel you can leave them without worrying, this can save your sanity on this job—a chance to get away together. Talk to other presidents' wives."

As regards the critical relationship between the first lady and the faculty wives association, wives of presidents were asked whether the first lady should belong to the association and overwhelmingly responded, "Yes!" However, when asked whether the president's wife should hold office in the wives association, they responded, "No!"

Wives were asked if they ever longed for days when they *knew* people liked them for themselves, and a wealth of answers resulted:

1. Yes (65).
2. No (40).
3. They do! I think! I hope! I assume! (15).
4. Ignore it! Don't look back (5).
5. Never occured to me! (4)
6. Yes, yes, yes! (4)
7. Don't they? (3).
8. Why? (2).
9. Constantly (2).

This question drew the strongest emotional responses as well as the most diverse. Many wives said they longed for the days when they knew people liked them for themselves and not because of the "position" they now held.

As wives disliked the lack of privacy or "being on display" or the lack of true friends, it would appear they often have a job as lonesome as that of president. Further, it would appear that many are aware of an inability to escape from the status role.

Though it was noted earlier that wives were a bit divided about the entertaining function (entertainment ranked fourth as a *like* and first as a *dislike*), entertainment was found to be a major function of the president's wife.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

There is a need for the "professional" wife, who, after arriving upon the scene, determines through study and observation the degree of assistance she can provide and then proceeds to offer the stability and serenity necessary for the college to prosper to the degree she can be discreetly influential. The first lady has an official position which is never really official. She can influence a college by never going near it. She can also do some good.

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Occasional Reports from UCLA Junior College Leadership Program:

1. Frederick C. Kintzer. *Faculty Handbooks in California Public Junior Colleges* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 1). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1961. Price, $1.00.
2. Frederick C. Kintzer. *Board Policy Manuals in California Public Junior Colleges* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 2). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1962. Price, $1.00.
3. *Institutional Research in the Junior College—A Report of a Conference* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 3). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1962. Price, $1.50.
4. Frederick C. Kintzer, *President's Report in American Junior Colleges* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 4). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1963. Price, $1.50.
5. *Establishing Junior Colleges* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 5). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1964. Price, $1.50.
6. B. Lamar Johnson, *Islands of Innovation* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 6). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1964. Price, $1.00.
7. B. Lamar Johnson, ed. *New Directions for Instruction in the Junior College* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 7). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1965. Price, $2.00.
8. B. Lamar Johnson, ed. *The Junior College Library* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 8). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1966. Price, $2.00.
9. B. Lamar Johnson, ed. *Systems Approaches to Curriculum and Instruction in the Open-Door College* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 9). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1967. Price, $2.00.
10. Ervin L. Harlacher. *Effective Junior College Programs of Community Services: Rationale, Guidelines, Practices* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 10). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1967. Price, $2.00.
11. Arthur M. Cohen, in collaboration with Florence B. Brawer. *Focus on Learning: Preparing Teachers for the Two-Year College* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 11). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1968. Price, $2.00.
12. B. Lamar Johnson, ed. *The Experimental Junior College* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 12). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1968. Price, $2.00.
13. B. Lamar Johnson, ed. *The Junior College President* (Junior College Leadership Program, Occasional Report No. 13). Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles, 1969. Price, $2.00.

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